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OF THE

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GENERAL LITERATURE, &C.

"Commerce is King."

J. D. B. DE BOW, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

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1850.

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ART. I.—GOVERNMENT OF BRITISH INDIA.

THE HOME GOVERNMENT.—By W. Adam, Esq.†

INTRODUCTION; PROPRIETORS OF STOCK; COURT OF DIRECTORS; BOARD OF CONTROL; PARLIAMENT AND PEOPLE OF ENGLAND.

The acquisition of India by England, whether we regard the means employed, the results actually produced, or the consequences still future; whether we regard its influence on the conquering or the conquered race—on the civilization of Asia, or on the character of England—is one of the most extraordinary and fruitful events of modern times. Its history yet remains to be written; not in the spirit of party warfare, nor in the interests of national policy—not with the special pleading of the casuist, nor with the meager details of the statistician—but in the spirit of a sound philosophy, and with an enlarged apprehension of the rights and duties, the prospects and destinies, of society. The government of India, that is, the system adopted by England for the administration of the affairs of that dependency, would constitute one part of such a history, profoundly interesting and important, when truly and fully understood; but obscure and complicated, from the numerous checks and counter checks, means and agencies, that have been brought into operation, and presenting great difficulty to one who, through these multifarious particulars, attempts to penetrate to its essential and characteristic features. It is somewhat hazardous to make this attempt within the brief scope which the present occasion affords, and the reader must therefore be warned, that only the most superficial views of the frame-work of the English government of India, and of the principles which it embodies, will be presented; correct, it is not doubted, as far as they go, but still imperfect—suggestive, it may be, of some serious reflection to the thinking: but, to do justice to the subject, requires far more ample and extended illustration.

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* The table of contents of this number is now, and will hereafter be, published upon the second page (inside) of cover.—Ed.

† Mr. Adam has lived many years in India, and had every opportunity of investigating its affairs. His residence is now in Louisiana. The affairs of India must be of great interest to the South, taking in view the so-much-talked-of competition from that quarter in our staples.

Giving a population of one hundred or one hundred and fifty millions, to be governed by a nation of twenty-six millions, at the distance of half the circuit of the globe, professing different religions, speaking different tongues, having different manners, customs and institutions, belonging to different kinds of civilization, and to long and widely-separated divisions of the human race, what are the principles of government that should be adopted? what the best form of government that can be devised and administered? When this problem is offered for solution, the first thought that occurs to an honest mind, is, that the political and social relations between these two divisions of mankind are unnatural and vicious, and that no wisdom or ingenuity can frame a system of government, adapted to each circumstance, that shall be just to both—undegrading to the one and uncorrupting to the other. They stand in the relation of conquerors and conquered; of arbitrary rulers and subject masses; of masters and slaves—without common associations, or mutual sympathies, or identical interests; and, as this is a relation, in their case, which God has not established, which nature does not sanction, and which reason will not justify, so every attempt, by forms and systems of government, to confirm, perpetuate and sanctify it, must prove futile and unavailing. There is no right way of doing a wrong thing; and while the relation itself is allowed to continue, the mode of acting under that relation must partake of its vicious and unnatural character.

Still, the relation exists, and the question recurs, What are the conceivable, the practicable, or the actual, modes of exercising the authority which it confers? One mode is that of transferring the authority of the dominant power from its original seat to the conquered country. This was the course pursued by Baber, the founder of the dynasty of the house of Zimur, in India, who, after ruling Cabul twenty-two years, conquered India, and made it the principal seat of his government, while Cabul was governed by delegated authority, as a subordinate dependency. It was the course also pursued by the king of Portugal, in the early part of this century. When driven from his native throne by the French, he made Brazil the seat of his government. This mode has a direct tendency to identify the interests of the conquerors and conquered, and constitutes the true explanation of the firm hold which the Mohammedans have retained of India long after their authority has passed away. But this is a mode of governing India which the crown of England could not adopt, and to which the people of England would not submit. A second mode may be conceived—that of granting a kind of *independence* to the conquered country, by establishing over it a new dynasty in the person of a member of the family that reigns in the conquering country; and, at the same time, creating a kind of *dependence* on the latter, by exacting an annual tribute and commercial advantages, or by treaties offensive and defensive. This would resemble, in some respect, the connection that has subsisted between certain European States; that, for instance, which Napoleon, by means of his brothers, attempted to establish between France and Holland, Spain, &c. But it does not appear that such an arrangement, with regard to India, has ever entered into the plans of any English statesman. The third and only other mode that need now be mentioned, is that of governing the conquered and more populous country by the delegated authority of responsible agents, removed from time to time, and exercising their authority with a strict regard to the instructions and interests of the conquering and less populous country. This, as all are aware, is the course that England has pursued with all her colonies; and it is the course she has pursued with India, which is not a colony, but an immense, dependent empire, and which is thus made to receive her deputed rulers, at second hand and at successive periods, from a distant and dominant country.

A delegated government may exist under various forms. The delegation of power may be made by the supreme authority of the State, with or without the concurrence of the popular will. It may be made to one or to many. It may or may not consist with the enjoyment of political rights and franchises by the people over whom the delegated authority is to be exercised, qualifying and abridging the exercise of that authority. Peculiar circumstances is each case determine the constitution and character of a delegated government; and, in the instance of India, a very extraordinary combination of circumstances has produced a very irregular, and, in some respects, unprecedented, system of government. A company of merchants, trading to the East Indies, conquered India; and, although the commercial character of that company has ceased, yet the proprietors of its stock, consisting of individuals of both sexes and of all classes and conditions, are the nominal rulers of India, and formally entrusted with its political government.

But the proprietors of India stock, constituting the East India Company, exercise most of the powers conferred on them through the medium of a Board of Directors, elected from among themselves, and thus practically made the sovereigns of India. The acquisition of territory by the company, and the exercise of political power by its directors, early roused the jealousy of the ministers of the crown, and, accordingly, a Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India exists, expressly appointed by the crown, to control the proceedings and measures of the directors of the company. But the ministers of the crown, including of course the minister who presides over the Board of Control, are responsible to parliament, and parliament is responsible to the nation at large; and there are thus, in England, five organizations or powers that are entitled to participate in the government of India, in a manner more or less direct and formal: first, the proprietors of stock; second, the directors of the company; third, the ministerial board; fourth, parliament, and, fifth, the constituency of the united kingdom, who elect members of parliament. The Court of Directors is the central authority, around which the others revolve, and which they watch—but it is the joint operation of them all that constitutes what is called the home government of India, and a few words, devoted to illustrate the separate power and influence of each, will serve to give precision and accuracy to the views of the reader.

The miscellaneous character of the proprietors of East India stock has already been stated; and this arises from the fact, that the purchase of stock, unless in exceptional cases, is never regarded as an instrument for influencing the condition of India by the power it confers—but, either as a safe investment of capital, or as a means of obtaining valuable appointments, in India, for relatives. Hence, proprietors of stock are found residing all over the kingdom, from Caithness to Cornwall, in Europe, America and India, as well as in England, aliens as well subjects of the crown, merchants, lawyers, clergymen, civilians and soldiers, women as well as men. This heterogeneous body is required to hold quarterly meetings at the India house, in London; but it is evident that only those residing in the metropolis, or its vicinity, can, in general, attend—and they are, for the most part, under the influence of the enormous patronage-power possessed by the directors—and thus these quarterly meetings of proprietors have become mere occasions for awarding the behests of their own servants, the directors. Proprietors have one, two, three, or four votes, according as their stock amounts to £1,000, £3,000, £6,000, or £10,000 sterling; and, besides the regular quarterly meetings, a special meeting must be summoned, on the demand of nine or more proprietors, each holding £500 stock. At these meetings, or general courts, as they are called, the ordinary business is to choose directors to supply vacancies in their number, and to make by-laws, and, although they are not empowered to rescind, suspend, revoke, or vary any order of the Court of Directors, touching the civic, or military government, or the revenues, of India, after it has been approved by the Board of Control—nor to revoke or vary regulations respecting the trade of friendly nations with India—yet all these subjects, and every other, without exception, embraced in the home or foreign government of India, in its internal or external policy, may be discussed, information called for, and votes of censure or approval passed. This opens a very wide field, and these periodical and special meetings might be made powerful checks on misgovernment; but they have not been so employed: and, although feeble attempts have been made, from time to time, with such a view, by a small number of public-spirited proprietors, yet their influence, as a body, on the government of India, must be pronounced null. It may be added, that the East India company, originally existing only for trading purposes, gradually acquired territorial power and assumed political functions, and, dropping its mercantile character, now nominally exists only as a political body; so, it is not impossible, that, in a few years, it will be deprived of its political authority, and reassume its original character of a trading company. This change may take place under the following circumstances: at the last renewal of the charter, the stock of the company amounted to £6,000,000 sterling, and, instead of looking to the profits of trade for dividends, they, in 1834, surrendered the whole for an annuity of £10 10*s.* per cent. per annum, charged on the Indian revenues, not redeemable by the British government until 1874, and then redeemable only at the rate of £200 sterling per cent., *i. e.*, by the payment of £12,000,000 sterling for £6,000,000. But the act of parliament, which invests the company with the political government of India, has effect only from 1834 to 1854, a period of twenty years; and if, at the close of that period, now rapidly approaching, parliament shall refuse, which is not altogether unlikely, to renew the political functions of the company, then the company, within one year, may demand the redemption of the dividend, and provision for the redemption must be made within those years. Two courses will then be open to the proprietors of stock: either to dissolve the company, resolving themselves into their original elements, and dividing the spoils; or the mercantile character of the company, which is now only in abeyance, may be revived, and the company, as an unprivileged, but still powerful body, may enter the market of the world with a capital of £12,000,000 sterling, or, in round numbers, from fifty to sixty millions of dollars.

The right to demand the payment of this sum must give the company an immense influence over the minister of the day, whether whig or tory, and the sudden introduction of it into the channels of trade, might sensibly affect the value of commodities, and the condition and prospects of the mercantile world.

The next authority, in the home government of India, is that of the Court of Directors, who are nominally the representatives and servants, but really the masters, of the proprietors of stock, and the rulers of India. There are twenty-four directors, each of whom must be a holder of £2,000 stock, and a natural born, or naturalized subject, of England. The election of directors is only for four years, and, consequently, six go out annually by rotation, and are ineligible for one year; and this provision, which was designed to infuse some new life into the body every year, is entirely defeated by the reëlection next year, always, of the same individuals, through the influence of their co-directors, which is omnipotent for such a purpose. The election of a director, therefore, is practically for life, and, practically, the Court of Directors is a self-elected, close corporation. They have the whole patronage of the local government of India, as far as it can be possessed and exercised by men residing in England, and they have nearly the whole patronage of the home government of India. Their establishments in England, including the India house, in London, in all its departments, a college at Hayleyburg for the education of civilians, a military seminary at Addiscombe, a military depot at Chatham, and recruiting officers and staff throughout the kingdom, embraced, in 1840, four hundred and four persons, receiving salaries and allowances, which amounted to £109,410 per annum. They appoint the governor-general of India, the governors of Bengal, Madras and Bombay, the commander-in-chief of all the forces in India, the commanders-in-chief of the armies of the subordinate presidencies, the members of the council of India, and the members of the councils of the subordinate presidencies; and they select, appoint, educate and send, from England, the persons who shall alone be entitled to enter the privileged civil and military, politcal, medical and clerical, services of India, and from whom alone the government of India are permitted to recruit those services. By means of those whom they thus choose and appoint to office in India, they collect, administer and control, the revenues of India, averaging from £20,000,000 to £23,000,000 per annum, and they give authoritative instructions to the different governments of India, extending to the minutest details of administration, political and military, civic, financial and judicial, from the invasion of a kingdom, or the subversion of a dynasty, to the making of a turnpike or the levying of a town-rate.

In the exercise of some of these powers, the directors are controlled by the ministerial Board of Commissioners; but, notwithstanding these restrictions, of all bodies similarly constituted, they are, perhaps, the most powerful that has ever existed. They have the management of greater powers and resources, both physical and pecuniary, than any other like body ever enjoyed. They sit securely, unostentatiously, almost unobservedly, at the India house, in Londonhall street, London, and yet, at will, they convulse all Asia, raise provinces and put them down, and directly influence the condition of a sixth portion of the human race.

The sovereignty of the crown over the territorial possessions of the company, was expressly reserved in every royal charter and act of parliament bearing on the subject; and it was in the exercise of this sovereignty that a Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India, commonly called the Board of Control, was appointed in 1784, and its powers have been from time to time extended, until it now controls the directors in the entire administration of the government of India, except in the disposal of their patronage, and even to some extent in that also. The Board is constituted by letters patent, or commission from the crown; and the first named commissioner is the president of the Board, and, in fact, the Board itself, for he is the only salaried commissioner—while the others, consisting of other ministers of the crown, are, *quoad hoc*, unsalaried, *ex officio*, and therefore only nominal commissioners. The total expenses of the Board are limited to £26,000 per annum, which sum is defrayed from the revenues of India. The Board is entitled to have access to the books and papers of the company, to call for the preparation of all such accounts, statements and abstracts, as it may require, and to receive copies of the minutes of the proceedings, both of the proprietors and directors, and copies, also, of all dispatches received from India. The directors are not permitted to send any orders to India on any public matters whatever, until submitted to the Board; and the Board must return the orders thus submitted within two months, either approved, disapproved, or attested, as the Board may think fit. The directors, if their proposed orders have been disapproved or altered, may further represent and defend their views in writing, addressed to the Board, and the Board will then give further directions, which are final and conclusive. The Board may even originate orders to the government of India, for transmission by the directors, if the directors should neglect to frame dispatches within fourteen days after having been required to do so. On the other hand, if the directors deem the directions of the Board contrary to law, they may jointly send a special case to three or more of the judges of the court of Queen's Bench, whose opinions shall be final and conclusive. In short, the powers of the Board enable it to superintend, direct and control, all acts and concerns which in any wise relate to the civil or military government or revenues of India. There is another provision which has directly contributed still further to limit the power of the directors as a body. They are required to appoint, from among themselves, a secret committee of three, always consisting of the chairman, deputy chairman, and another director, to whom the Board may send any orders on subjects which are deemed to require secresy—such as the levying of war, the making of peace, or the entering into treaties or negotiations with any native princes or states of India, or any other princes or states—and such dispatches the secret committee are required to transmit, without disclosure, to any of their co-directors. The effect of this has been to throw the whole government of India, in all important matters, into the hands of the secret committee and of the president of the Board of Control, and to reduce the twenty-one remaining directors to mere pageants, or, at best, the receivers and dispensers of patronage. Notwithstanding the possession of these large powers, the Board of Control is neither a dignified nor a useful body. It has no patronage, and therefore it has no favors to bestow. It is practically a censorship on the Court of Directors and the government of India; and in that capacity it is inefficient, for, during the sixty-six years that it has existed, not a man has been either president or secretary of the Board, who has had any actual acquaintance with India. The president is always a cabinet minister, but generally not *primus*, but *secundus*, or *tertius*, or *quartus*, inter pares; the secretary always a partizan of the minister of the day: both obtain and leave office with their party, and their appointment to that office is always made without the slightest reference to their knowledge of India or its affairs. The clerks of the Board are in reality the depositaries of its knowledge, and wield its power—for they do not go out of office with their patrons, but are fixed officers, brought up in the office, and rising by seniority. They, however, are irresponsible and unknown, with no personal knowledge of India, and with only a limited and inconvenient access to mere extracts from the records of the corporation which they have to control. The result of ignorance and indifference, is feebleness and inefficiency.

Little need be said of the power exercised by the parliament and the people of England over the government of India, for it amounts to nothing. Proprietors think of their dividends, directors of their patronage, ministers of their places; and, in like manner, the attention of parliament is swallowed up in party politics, and the public spirit of the people is engrossed in seeking the redress of their own peculiar grievances. A hundred millions of British subjects in India, who are dependent upon England for good government, are seldom, if ever, made the subject of consideration—except when, after the lapse of twenty years, the question of the renewal of the company's chartered privileges comes to be discussed; and then the question never yet has been, How may India be best governed with a view to its own advantage? but, How may India be governed for the greatest advantage of England, and what individuals, or party, shall enjoy the power which the possession of its vast patronage confers?

Such is the home government of India, which, with a great parade of forms and combinations, and checks and balances, is practically vested in the Directors of the East India company, and of them, chiefly, in the three directors who compose the secret committee, together with the president of the Board of Control. These are the men that pull the strings which move the puppets on the great theater of British power in Asia; and yet not wholly puppets, for those who are subject to this authority possess a substantive power, which amounts to a practical despotism. Even *a priori* it might naturally be supposed impossible, at such a distance as England, to direct and control the government of such a country as India, without leaving much to the arbitrary discretion of those in whose hands the powers of local government are placed.

ART. II.—THE ORIGIN, PROGRESS AND PROSPECTS OF SLAVERY.

SLAVERY IN THE UNITED STATES, &c.—By the Editor.

Whatever definition may be given to slavery, or by whatever laws it has been conceived necessary to regulate it, nothing can be more lear than that the *personal* character of the slave, or his rank as an lement of population, distinguishes entirely the relation, and that the lea of *property* is a subordinate one, *sui generis*, and in but a limited egree analogous to what is usually understood by that term in its echnical sense. Property gives the absolute power and control, not nly *over*, but *in*, the subject, without any limitation or restraint, except o far as the rights of others shall not be interfered with. It exists y my will, and I may change, alter or *destroy*, it. No such power is, r perhaps ever has been, claimed or exercised over the slave, since the hristian world first abandoned the barbarous doctrine that an infidel as not entitled to the rights of a human being.

The power which the master exercises over a slave, is far more analogous to that exercised upon an indentured apprentice, than to any power claimed over a mere chattel. The apprenticeship may be as *involuntary* as the slavery in its incipiency and continuance, and very often is. The apprentice and the slave are both for a term of years, the one being for a life term. The master's power, in both instances, extends to the entire regulation and control of the person, and the absolute enjoyment of his labor. In both instances is he responsible to the law for an abuse of power. The obligations of the master are identical in kind, though not in degree—support, or support and instruction. In either instance there is room for much kindness and much tyranny.

The analogy between the slave and the apprentice fails in these respects, that the master may at any time transfer to another his right in the personal services of his slave, and has the same disposing power over his offspring born during slavery. It is evident, however, that these are not *necessary* and characteristic elements of slavery, any more than the absence of a transferring power is necessary in apprenticeship. The master's obligations to the slave are not personal to him, are not founded upon any particular skill which may be peculiar, but may be performed by any of the human family. He has been at the whole expense, care and concern, of raising and providing for the offspring of the slave, during infancy and childhood, and has a well-established claim to be reimbursed. The child is but naturally substituted to the parents. The consideration is a clear one which the slave receives; and, should one pretend that it is inadequate, he will have enough to do to travel the world over in search of the labor which meets with an adequate consideration.

The truth is, the power of the master over the slave is only that of controlling his labor—and he is entitled to use all the means necessary for that purpose. Without inquiring into the foundation of the right, it is evident that this power of the master no more affects the individual and personal character of the slave, than that of the capitalist, all the world over, and especially in the great manufacturing towns of England, over his operatives. It is idle to pretend that the labor of the latter is not as imperiously bowed down and controlled by the sternest dictates of necessity, and without the hope of change or improvement, as that of the former. The English master has the absolute power over the bread—the life of the laborer, and that of his children—how much more over his labor!

As persons, then, and population, we proceed to consider that whole class, in our country, not embraced under the head of free white citizens and "Indians untaxed." We shall trace the history of their introduction, their progress, their relations and their numbers. Having concluded this branch of the subject, we shall proceed to discuss the qualified right of property which is maintained over them, showing its foundation and extent, its expediency and necessity. These matters are too important to be passed over in times like these. It is necessary that we all clearly and fully understand them. It will be thus seen we have opened before us the subject of slavery in all its aspects, political, civil, religious, historical and economical.

The first attempt to introduce negro slaves within the United States, was in 1645, by a citizen of Boston, and it was not until 1670 that the first cargo of African slaves were brought to Virginia, by a Dutch vessel, and sold. The increase in that colony was at first very slow. In 1671, Sir John Yeamans introduced slaves into South Carolina, from Barbadoes, almost coeval with the establishment of the colony. The increase in this class, by propagation and immigration, was very rapid, doubling, before long, the number of the whites. Maryland, also, in 1671, passed a law for "encouraging the introduction of negroes and slaves."

From this period, the introduction of slavery became general in all the American colonies, increasing by natural means and by the slave trade, so long as that was permitted, and since, by the ordinary augmentation of population.

At the period of the first census of the United States, in 1790, we find that slavery existed in all of the States and western Territories, except Massachusetts and Maine, which were at that period united. In Massachusetts, however, exist various early laws in regard to slavery. In 1691, the general court decreed "there shall never be any bond-slavery, &c., among us, *unless it be lawful captives taken in just wars, or such as willingly sell themselves, or are sold to us, &c., provided this exempt none from servitude who shall be judged thereto by authority*."[*]

In 1703, a duty of £4 was laid upon every negro imported into Massachusetts.[†] The same year, we find a law of the general court, relating to mulatto and negro slaves, *prohibiting their manumission*, without previous security that they should not afterward be at the charge of the colony, and all other manumission to be void.[‡] In 1735, the number of blacks were 2,000; whole population, about 50,000. In 1763, the blacks were 5,000; whites, 240,000. What portion were slaves, we are unable to say, though it was judicially declared, after the Revolution, in Massachusetts, that slavery was virtually abolished by the constitution of the State.*

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[*] Ancient Charters and Laws of Massachusetts-Bay, Boston, 1814, p. 53.

[†] Collection Massachusetts Historical Society, vol. iv, 196.

[‡] Ancient Charters, &c., Massachusetts-Bay.

The census of 1790 showed 697,697 slaves in the United States, or nearly 17.76 per cent. of the whole population; the free colored were 59,466, or 1½ per cent.; the free negro and slave population, together, being about one-fifth of the whole. In those States where slavery has been subsequently retained, the proportion was of course largest, being about 35 per cent., or one-third. In South Carolina, the proportion of slaves was most considerable of all, being 43 per cent., or nearly one-half; in Tennessee the proportion was least, being 9.6 per cent., or one-tenth. The proportion of *free blacks* was largest in Rhode Island, 3,407, or one-twenty-third, and in Delaware, one-fifteenth. In Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, they were one-seventy-fifth, and in Maryland, one-fortieth of the whole population. Virginia had 1.70 per cent.; South Carolina, .07 per cent. of *free blacks.*

The census of 1800 showed 893,041 slaves, and 108,395 free colored—being a proportion in the former of 16.83 per cent., and 2.05 per cent. in the latter. Thus was exhibited a *decline in the proportion* of slaves to free whites of .73 or nearly 1 per cent., and an *increase* in the proportion of free negroes of .54, or ½ per cent. The proportion of whole colored to whole white, had lost .39, or ⅓ of 1 per cent. The increase of slaves in ten years had been 27.96 per cent., being 7½ per cent. less than the increase of whites; the increase in free colored being 82.28, more than twice as great as that of the whites. The increase of whites was of course greatly affected by immigration, that of the free colored by emancipation. The slaves lost by emancipation and gained by a few importations still from Africa, perhaps equally. Their increase may thus be considered a *natural* one. The colored population of the New England States increased in ten years but 9 per cent.; the same population in the South increased 33⅓ † In all the slave States the proportion of slaves was 35 per cent., being a white gain; the slaves, from being somewhat more than a third of the whole population, became somewhat less; South Carolina still continued to show the largest proportion of slaves, 42.3, showing at the same time a slight decline. Delaware showed the least, 9.6 per cent. The free blacks of New England had increased about 33 per cent., while the slaves there had lost 60 per cent. Now, either the black population of New England, or the slave portion of it, had been sold to the southward, or it exhibits the *lowest* increase known to our population !‡

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* Kent, vol. ii, Com. Slavery.

† Mississippi territory excluded.

‡ See Tucker on the Population of the United States.

The census of 1810 indicated 1,191,364 slaves, and 186,446 free colored; an increase in the slaves of 33.40 as against 27.96 in the previous ten years; of the whole colored, 37.58 against 32.23. To account for this enlarged increase, it must be remembered that Louisiana had been purchased with slaves and colored, and that Africans were continually imported up to 1808. The increase of whites, owing to immigration, was 2½ per cent. greater than that of slaves, and 1½ less than that of the free blacks. In this ten years, the whites gained very slightly upon the slaves, and the whole colored population gained upon the whites. In the slave States the free colored gained 1 per cent. The slaves gained also, and, from a little less, had become a little more than one-third. The increase of blacks in New England, exceeded 7 per cent., being a loss of 2 per cent. Their increase in *slave* States was nearly 35 per cent.—a gain of 1½ to 2 per cent. The proportion of slaves to whites is still highest in South Carolina, 47.3, having gained 5 per cent. Louisiana stands next, 45.3; then come Mississippi, Georgia and Virginia.

The census of 1820[*] showed 1,543,688 slaves, and 238,197 free colored, and increase in the slaves of 29.57, being nearly 2 per cent. more than the increase of the ten years ending 1800. The whole colored increase was 29.33 per cent. against 37.58; free colored, 27.75 against 72 per cent. The white population gained 1 per cent. on colored, the same on slaves; the free colored gained one-tenth of 1 per cent. The falling away of the increase of slaves was owing to many elopements of this class during the war, &c. In the slave States the free colored had remained stationary, and the slaves had gained nearly 1 per cent.; the whole colored had gained on the whites ½ per cent., nearly. The increase of blacks in New England was still about 7 per cent.; at the South, 30 per cent. The proportion of blacks in South Carolina remains highest, 51.4, having gained 4 per cent. In Louisiana, 45 per cent.; Georgia and Mississippi, 43 per cent. The free blacks to whole population, have declined in Louisiana, Missouri and Georgia, an average of near 2 per cent., but increased in all the other slave States except Delaware; in no instance, however, more than 1½ per cent., and in some instances, a mere fraction.

The census of 1830 included 2,009,043 slaves, and 319,599 free, an increase in the slaves of 30.75, being an augmented increase of 1 per cent.—in the whole colored 31.37; also an increased increase of 2 per cent.[†]

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[*] 1820 is compared with 1810, so as not to allow the calculations to be affected by the purchase of Louisiana.

[†] The returns are corrected for two months, as the census was taken in a different month.

The white population gained slightly on the colored, and the colored on the slaves. The free colored in slave States increased one-tenth of 1 per cent.; the slaves gained ½ per cent., and the whole colored had again gained on the whites. The blacks have actually lost 16 in New England, whereas at the South they have gained 527,533, or about one-third of the original number. The proportion of slaves has, in ten years, increased 3 per cent. in South Carolina. In Mississippi, 5 per cent., and are 48.1 of the whole population. In Louisiana they were 50.8, an increase of 5 per cent. The free blacks increased in Maryland, District of Columbia and Delaware, 2 to 3 per cent.; in Kentucky, 1 per cent. In other States, trifling losses or gains.*

By the census of 1840, it appeared there were 2,487,350 slaves, and 386,348 free colored persons in the United States, an increase in slaves, in ten years, of 23.81; of free colored, 20.88; a decline in the increase of this population of 13.97 and 6.94 per cent. Professor Tucker argues a very great error somewhere. Though free blacks have emigrated to British provinces, and slaves have been carried to Texas, the numbers were not sufficient to affect, in any degree, the result. The whites have hence gained largely upon the colored, supposing the returns correct, and the free colored have diminished in their ratio of increase. The latter have declined, in proportion, in the slave States, as also have the slaves; the last, in extent, more than one-half per cent. The proportion of slaves has increased in South Carolina, and is still largest. In Mississippi it is fifty-two per cent.; in Louisiana it appears to have lost two per cent., being now less than half. In the southern States, the free blacks have ceased to increase, with the same ratio; the proportion in Louisiana remains largest, being seven per cent. of the whole population. Virginia comes next. The blacks of New England increased six per cent. in ten years; those of the slave States, twenty-six per cent.! By this census it appears that every State returned slaves, except Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts and Michigan. By the last census, Massachusetts and Vermont only were excepted.

We have thus traced the progress of slavery in the United States, from the first introduction of the institution down to the completion of the census of 1840. The decennial enumeration to be taken the present year, 1850, and hereafter, will show something like the following, supposing the ratio of increase of slaves and free blacks to be preserved:

	Slaves.	Free Blacks.	Total Slave and Free.
1850,...............	3,059,441	463,617	3,523,058
1860,...............	3,763,112	556,340	4,319,452
1870,...............	4,628,627	667,608	5,296,235

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* Florida had been purchased.

1880,...............	5,693,211	801,129	6,494,334
1890,...............	7,002,649	961,355	7,962,004
1900,...............	8,613,258	1,153,626	9,766,884
1910,...............	10,594,307	1,384,351	11,978,658

It is possible the free blacks may increase in a greater, and the slaves in a less ratio, without affecting the sum total of increase of the two classes. A diminution in the increase of slaves may result from frequent emancipation, from emigration from the country—but this must be very inconsiderable, or from a lower degree of productiveness, the result of lower physical comfort, diminished valuation and less industrial uses, etc. We see no reason to allow much for the operation of these causes within the next half century, and may safely estimate ten millions of blacks and colored in the country at the close of it.

It is also clear, from our investigations, that no State, or class of States, can be more responsible than another, for the introduction and extension of the institution of slavery in the Union. The results show, too, that, in a condition of freedom, the blacks of New England have been situated most unpropitiously, as indicated in their trifling increase of numbers—unless we suppose they have passed southward, as general emancipation was expected, or took place in this quarter. Taking the whole Union into account, whatever the merits or demerits of the institution of slavery, ours is but a small share of responsibility for its continuance, and none for its introduction.

The history of slavery carries us back to the origin of society itself. It was found in the earliest advanced nations of antiquity. To attribute its derivation to war is absurd; for, admitting *servus* to be derived from the Latin *servare* (to preserve a captive), slavery, we know, was old before Rome had been founded. Perhaps the most curious and ridiculous position is that taken in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, that it originated among the antediluvian giants, whose name implied assaulters of others. Nimrod, according to the same authority, was one of its authors—since the Bible tells us he was a mighty hunter before the Lord! To such stuff are authors driven in maintaining their favorite theories.

The fact is, that, immediately after the deluge, we have a decree of God, himself, condemning the children of Ham to perpetual servitude, using the very Hebrew word which translators render *slave*. After a few generations, slavery is referred to as a well-established institution—for Abraham, the patriarch, had 318 slaves (Gen., xiv). The laws of God strictly regulated this relation, in all its aspects, and his own peculiar people were *commanded* to buy slaves from the heathen, and not to steal them, and instructed how to treat them after they were bought, &c.*

It is said that the heathen, taking advantage of this mild slavery, tolerated by God, established a much worse kind among themselves. However this may be, and it is not improbable, many of the Jews, also, abused the institution, as they did other laws; we may well affirm that slavery presents no worse aspect in the civilized nations of the present day, than it did among the Hebrews.

In *Homer*, one of the oldest historians extant, there is abundant evidence that all captives were considered slaves; and Ulysses relates his escape from a Phenician, who had doomed him to Lybian slavery. Thus have we the slave trade at that early period. Philip of Macedon sold the captive Thebans, in which example he was followed by his son, Alexander the Great. In Athens, during the most polished ages, slavery was a well established order, although, it is said, that slaves were treated with more leniency than among other nations. In Rome and Sparta the worst features were exhibited. The Spartans butchered their slaves, when, by reason of great numbers, they would likely become dangerous. Camillus, one of the most accomplished generals of the Roman Republic, sold his Etrurian captives to pay the Roman ladies for the jewels they had presented to Apollo. Tabius sold 30,000 citizens of Tarentum to the highest bidder. Julius Cæsar did the same with 53,000 captives. Even debtors were allowed, by the twelve tables, to become the slaves of their creditors. So numerous were the slaves owned by the rich patricians, that Isidorus, who was almost a cotemporary with our Savior, left to his heirs 4,116 slaves; and Augustus put 20,000, of the same class, on board the corn ships. Though many laws were enacted by Augustus and other patriotic emperors, says the British Encyclopedia, to diminish the power of creditors over their insolvent debtors—though the influence of the mild spirit of Christianity tended much to meliorate the condition of slaves, even under Pagan masters, and though the emperor, Hadrian, made it capital to kill a slave without a just reason, yet this commerce prevailed for many ages, universally, in the empire, after the conversion of Constantine to the religion of Christ. It was not completely abolished, even in the reign of Justinian; and, in many countries, which had been once provinces of the empire, it continued long after the empire had fallen to pieces.

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* Dr. Cartwright once told us, that one of the crimes denounced in the Bible, is denominated by a term which means, literally, *slave stealers* (abolitionists). We forget in what connection the term is used; perhaps in reference to Tyre.

Among the ancient Germans, gamesters often became slaves from play, and slavery is said to have existed extensively, though in a mild form, according to Tacitus. In England, in the age of Alfred the Great (tenth century), purchases of men, horses and oxen, are mentioned in the same statute. In 1574, Queen Elizabeth issued a commission to inquire into the condition of her bond men and women in Cornwall, etc., with a view of compounding with them for their freedom. The colliers and salters of Scotland were not manumitted until the close of the eighteenth century. These men could be transferred by written deed from proprietor to proprietor, and were in no respect privileged without such deed.

We have not mentioned Egypt, where Joseph was sold to slavery, and where, in that condition, the Israelites existed 400 years. The Scythians established slavery throughout their northern wilds. Babylon, Tyre, and all the countries around Palestine, had slavery as one of their institutions. The "wrath of Achilles" was a quarrel about a slave. "In early Grecian republics, slavery seemed to be an indispensable element. The slave markets of Rome were filled with men of every complexion and every clime." After the conquest of the Normans, slaves were exported from England into Ireland, until the Irish themselves decreed their emancipation. On the Baltic, the Germans conducted the slave trade, and the Russians supplied slaves to Constantinople by way of the Dnieper. Even the word slave is derived from the Sclavonic tribes, who were reduced to slavery in their wars with the Germans. The Jews purchased slaves in France for the Saracens. The Arabians are said to have pawned their children to the Italian monarchs. The Venetians purchased slaves at Rome for the Arabs of Spain and Sicily. In the time of the crusades, three slaves were the price of a war horse. In the countless battles of the Moors and Christians, the captives were indiscriminately enslaved in the worse form. Christians regarded it a pious work, and the infidels retaliated through the pirates of Barbary.

On the discovery of America, the native Indians were imported into Spain as slaves. All the rivers of the country were penetrated for this commerce, which was effected through fraud and force. Even Columbus sent five hundred such slaves to be sold at Seville. This traffic is said to have continued two centuries. The New Englanders enslaved the Pequods, the Waldrans and the Annon Indians, and they even sought Indian slaves from the southern provinces.* The colonists were supplied with white servants from England, by a class of men called "spirits," who deluded them away and sold them in England, as well as in this country, under the hammer. The Scots taken in battle were sold to slavery, the royalist prisoners, and the Catholics of Ireland. The prisoners of Monmouth were eagerly sought as a merchantable commodity. Jeffries, the famous judge of James II, considered these prisoners as worth "ten or fifteen pounds apiece."*

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* See Thornton's "Slavery" and the authorities there cited, p. 21.

In regard to African slavery, it appears first to have taken deep root in Africa itself, though it is clear, from modern researches, that this people were held in slavery by the Egyptians, as proved by their monuments. The Africans, at no period of history, were devoid of slavery among themselves. They traded slaves to the Tyrians and Carthagenians. Slavery, says the Encyclopedia, seems indeed to have prevailed through all Africa, from the very first peopling of that unexplored country; and we doubt if, in any age of the world, the unhappy negro was absolutely secure of his personal freedom, or even of not being sold to a foreign trader. The African princes were in the habit of destroying thousands of their prisoners, before an opportunity offered of selling them. The Guinea coast supplied the Arabs with slaves, hundreds of years before the Portuguese embarked in the traffic. The Arabs of the desert have always been served by negro slaves. In 651, the king of Numidia promised an annual present of Ethiopian slaves to the Arabs of Egypt. Negro slaves were found in Greece [Bancroft]. In 1100, they must have been uncommon in Europe, for we learn, the crusaders burst into laughter on seeing some negroes in Asia, so comical was their appearance. It appears, however, the Portuguese, fifty years before the discovery of America, found the "trade in negro slaves, having curled hair," very profitable. The Spaniards vied with them in the trade at Seville. Isabella excepted the Moors, or negroes of Africa, from the act emancipating the Indians of America.

Queen Elizabeth was so delighted with the success of John Hawkins's slave operations in America, that she became a partner in his monopoly, sharing his gains and protecting him in his worst enterprises.

The early history of slavery in the United States we have already given (See Thornton, 26th and 27th pages, for the Quaker and Yankee participation in it). The West India Company sent slaves to New York by thousands. The Stewarts, and even Queen Anne, patronized the traffic. Amsterdam participated in its results in her corporate capacity. Pennsylvania maintained that it was "neither just nor convenient to emancipate her slaves;" and Rhode Island, the greatest of all the slave traders, "doubted if slaves should be baptized, as then they might become free."

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* See the stirring but disgusting picture of the scene, when peers and dignitaries and favorites, male and female, importuned the king for the privilege of disposing of these prisoners, and the success which attended them, in Macaulay's History of England.

It is well known how the introduction of slavery was forced upon the South, and how long resisted. The northern country even declared, that no person should own, in the colonies, land at all, unless he would purchase at least four negro slaves to every hundred acres![*]

ART. III.—DE SOTO IN ALABAMA.

INVASION OF THE TERRITORY OF ALABAMA, BY ONE THOUSAND SPANIARDS, UNDER FERDINAND DE SOTO, IN 1540.—BY A. J. PICKETT.

MONTGOMERY, ALA., *Brittan and De Wolf*, 1849.

THE above title introduces a pamphlet, of some forty pages, to the attention of the reading public. If taken by themselves, the facts would excite no inconsiderable interest in those who love the stirring incidents of early adventure, and delight to trace the history of genius, amid scenes of hardship and suffering. To gratify such tastes, is not, however, the aim of Colonel Pickett. The sketch of De Soto is introductory to a history of Alabama, and forms the first chapter of the forthcoming work. Viewed in this connection, it serves a higher purpose than to please the fancy and awaken romantic sentiments. Its design is to exhibit historic truth—a form of truth that every age appreciates more and more, not only for the principles it illustrates, and the lessons it unfolds, but for that union with the past which the present covets, and for those impressive associations which it creates with the material scenery which surrounds us in our daily life.

The records of our country's first exploration and settlement, are records of unparalleled interest. If they are studied as exhibitions of human character, they afford an opportunity for the philosophic to analyze the power of absorbing passions, and to mark the causes which stimulate ardent minds to penetrate into hidden forests and desert wilds. If contemplated for imaginative pleasure, they bring under review the stronger elements of our nature, as they hasten into the fiercest strife, with whatever can develop manly endurance and mighty courage. The age in which these exhibitions took place, was calculated to arouse all kinds of motives and quicken all springs of action. A new impulse had been given to religion, philosophy, government and commerce. Men. in every department of life, felt the sense of power awakening within them; they began to realize their nature, and, though it was a realization, in many instances, of its lower forms, the way was, nevertheless, opened for higher and nobler manifestations. Amid these circumstances—the world within, where principles, sentiments and passions, hold their sway and demand their gratification, and the world without, where unexplored lands held valuable treasures and exuberant soils awaited tillage—that series of wonders commenced on the western continent, which, in our day, is progressing toward such magnitude and grandeur. Here, one race after another has struggled for ascendency. Here, northern and southern Europe has repeated the ancient rivalry for preëminence. Here, all that is designated by talent, courage, skill and perseverance, has spread itself over a field, in which the very vastness of mountain ranges, and the wide-spread plains, seem to have been ordained as the witnesses of that loftier sublimity of mind and enterprise, of which they are the fainter symbols.

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[*] Thornton's "Slavery," p. 29, 32.

Among the earlier historic names of our country, De Soto holds a prominent place, as well from the fame which he brought to the continent with him, as from the incidents of his remarkable career among the Indians of Florida, Georgia and Alabama. Tracing the life of this heroic man, from his services under Pizarro until his death on the Mississippi, we witness one continued exemplification of that strength of character, and capacity for effort, which a high purpose and a powerful passion are able to produce. The experience of military life, in Peru, had been sufficient to develop a soldier's spirit, and fix a soldier's taste within him; while its natural scenery, and supposed wealth, had amply sufficed to give him a habit of imaginativeness, in all that respected material objects. To be as great in conquest as Pizarro, seems to have been an absorbing idea with him; and, to realize it, he was willing to endure the suffering and brave the perils of the wilderness; in a word, he was ready to pay the price of such distinction. Obtaining a commission from Charles V, to conquer Florida, he sailed from Cuba, in 1539, and, with six hundred soldiers, landed, in May, on its soil. The gilded shadow he was pursuing was not there. Allured by his own passions, as well as deluded by the natives, he continued his search, and, though disappointment succeeded disappointment, he persevered in penetrating forests, and marching over large tracts of country, cultivating the friendship, or subduing the hostility, of the Indians. The march was through the country, at present divided between the States of Florida, Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi. It has been accurately traced, by Colonel Pickett, who, in this, as in other things, evinces the minuteness and precision which are so admirable in the work of a historian. De Soto discovered the

Mississippi, in 1541. The fact, and its subsequent connections, are thus presented by our author:

> "The Spaniards reached the Mississippi river in May, 1541, and were the first to discover it, unless Cabacca de Vaca crossed it twelve years before, in wandering to Mexico, with his four companions—which is not probable from the evidence afforded by his journal. De Soto consumed a year in marching over Arkansas, and returned to the 'Father of Waters' at the town of Guachaya, below the mouth of the Arkansas river, the last of May, 1542. He here engaged in the construction of two brigantines, to communicate with Cuba. That great man, whose spirits had long forsaken him, who had met with nothing but disappointments, and who had, in the most perilous wanderings, discovered no country like Peru and Mexico, became sick, with a slow and malignant fever. He appointed Moscoso to the command, bid his officers and soldiers farewell, exhorted them to keep together, in order to reach that country which he was destined never to see, and then *closed his eyes in death!* Thus died Ferdinand de Soto, one of the most distinguished captains of that or any age! To conceal his death, and protect his body from Indian brutalities, it was placed in an oaken trough, and silently plunged into the middle of the Mississippi, on a dark and gloomy night! Long did the muddy waters wash the bones of one of the noblest sons of Spain! He was the first to behold that river, the first to close his eyes in death upon it, and the first to find a grave in its deep and turbid channel!"

We take great pleasure in calling public attention to this interesting and important work. It comprises the history of Alabama, from 1540 until 1820, and is written with great care and research. Whatever his enthusiasm, study and scholarship, could do toward this object, Colonel Pickett has faithfully done. No means have been spared, and no labor avoided, that were requisite in the production of a work, which is, obviously, the favorite object of his life. If any man should have an exemption from the liabilities that so emphatically and universally beset the candidate for public honor, and the aspirant for public fame, it is the hard-working historian; and we cannot but hope, that, in this instance, such industry, zeal and talent, as exhibited by Colonel Pickett, will receive a generous response in the hearts of his countrymen.

ART. IV.—REVIEW OF DR. CHANNING ON SLAVERY.

BY JOHN FLETCHER, A. M., OF NATCHEZ, MISS.

1. WORKS OF WM. ELLERY CHANNING, D. D., IN SIX VOLUMES. TENTH EDITION. BOSTON, 1849.

2. STUDIES ON SLAVERY, BY JOHN FLETCHER, A. M., OF CONCORDIA PARISH, LOUISIANA. (IN MANUSCRIPT, P. 128.)

THE style of Dr. Channing is easy, flowing and persuasive. The language is generally clear, often elevated, sometimes sublime. Few can read Channing's writings and not feel the impression, whatever may be the error of his doctrine, that the author added to his literary eminence a purity of intention. Such writings must always make a deep impression on the reader; and this fact of their moral power prompts the present essay. It may, indeed, be said of Channing, what Channing said of Fenelon:

> "He needs to be read with caution, as do all who write from their own deeply-excited minds. He needs to be received with deductions and explanations. * * * * We fear that the very excellencies of Fenelon may shield his errors. Admiration prepares the mind for belief, and the moral and religious sensibility of the reader may lay him open to impressions, which, whilst they leave his purity unstained, may engender causeless solicitude."—*Vol.* 1, *p.* 85.

Dr. Channing's sympathies for every appearance of human suffering—for every grade of human imperfection—gave a peculiar phasis, perhaps most amiable, to his intellect, religion and writings. He sought perfection for himself: he was ardent to behold it universal. Heaven must forever be the home of such a spirit, but the scenes of earth gave agitation and grief. Limited, in his earthly associations, to the habits of the North, the very purity of his heart led him to attack what he deemed the most wicked sin of the South. His politics were formed upon the model of his mind. Religion lifted him on her golden wing, and science aided in the extent and elevation of his mind.

But O! Thou, being God eternal, why not this earth made heaven! Why thy most perfect work imperfection! Why thy child, clothed with holiness or shod with the gospel, run truant to thy law, thy providence and government!

But, lo! we are not of thy council. We were not called when the foundations of eternity were laid! We are truly all very small be-

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NOTE.—The editor acknowledges his indebtedness to Mr. Forbes, long connected with the Free Trader, of Natchez, Miss., for the manuscripts now, for the first time, committed to print.

ings. Our very virtues, even purity, may direct to error; and may not our best intentions lead down to woe? Read again from Channing:

"It is a fact worthy of serious thought and full of solemn instruction, that many of the worst errors have grown out of the religious tendency of the mind. So necessary is it to keep watch over our whole nature—to subject the highest sentiments to the calm, conscientious reason. Men, starting from the idea of God, have been so dazzled by it as to forget or misinterpret the universe."—*Channing, vol.* 1, *p.* 14.

[After reading Mr. Fletcher's introductory approach to his subject, and the generous, if not strictly just, appreciation of Channing's noble and enthusiastic and pure character, the warmest friend of the latter cannot fear ungenerous treatment from Mr. Fletcher, toward the fame or the principles of the great ethical writer, whose volumes will descend to posterity among the richest in our language.

In the second volume of his writings, Dr. Channing lays down, at page fourteen, eight propositions:

1. Man cannot be justly held and used as property.
2. Man has sacred rights, the gift of God, and inseparable from human nature, of which slavery is the infraction.
3. Offer explanations to prevent misapplication of these principles.
4. Unfold the evils of slavery.
5. Consider the argument which the Scriptures are thought to furnish in favor of slavery.
6. Offer remarks on the means of removing it.
7. Offer remarks on abolition.
8. Reflections on the duties belonging to the times.

In the commencement of his "Studies on Slavery," Mr. Fletcher assails the foregoing assumptions of Dr. Channing. He contends that God alone, and not man, is possessed of indestructible rights. He impugns Channing's views of the sovereignty and infallibility of conscience; notes the eloquent Doctor's surrender of his own doctrine on the moral consciousness; gives the Scriptural proof, at large, of the right of property in man, to be held by his fellow man, and, finally, elaborates a brilliant argument, that the declared economy of the government of God requires the existence of slavery, until the close of the probationary state of mankind. Mr. Fletcher's knowledge of the Hebrew language, and the power and accuracy of his exegesis, make this part of his argument unanswerably convincing.

In extracting from the manuscript before us, we shall take a continuous portion, commencing at the thirty-fifth page, and devoted to the consideration of Dr. Channing's second proposition, to wit: "Man has *sacred rights*, the gifts of God, and inseparable from human nature, of which slavery is the infraction."]

"In proof of this," Dr. Channing writes (p. 32, vol. ii), "Man's rights belong to him as a moral being, as capable of perceiving moral distinctions, a subject of moral obligations. As soon as he becomes *conscious* of a duty, a kindred consciousness springs up, that he has a right to do what the sense of duty enjoins, and that no foreign will or power can obstruct his moral action without crime."

Suppose a man has rights as described; suppose he feels conscious, as Dr. Channing says, does that give him a right to do wrong, because his sense of duty enjoins him to do so? May he not be prevented from so doing? and is it, indeed, a crime to prevent him? Was it a crime, in the Almighty, to turn the counsel of Ahitophel into foolishness?

In the same volume of Channing, page 33, he says: "That same inward principle which teaches a man what he is bound to do to others, teaches, equally and at the same instant, what others are bound to do to him."

Suppose a few Africans, on an excursion to capture slaves, find that this "inward principle" teaches them that they are bound to make a slave of Dr. Channing, if they can; does he mean that, therefore, he is bound to make slaves of them?

From the same page in Channing, we extract the following: "The sense of duty is the fountain of human rights. In other words, the same inward principle which teaches the former, bears witness to the latter."

If the African's sense of duty gives the right to make the Doctor a slave, we do not see why he should complain, since, by the Doctor's rule, the African's sense of duty proves him to possess the right which his sense of duty covets.

> "Having shown the foundation of human rights in human nature, it may be asked, what they are. * * * * * They may all be comprised in the right, which belongs to every rational being, to exercise his powers for the promotion of his own and others' happiness and virtue. * * * * His ability for this work is a sacred trust from God—the greatest of all trusts. He must answer for the waste or abuse of it. He, consequently, suffers an unspeakable wrong, when stripped of it by others, or forbidden to employ it for the ends for which it is given."—*Page* 34.

We regret to say, that we feel objections to the Doctor's argument and mode of reasoning, for their want of definiteness and precision. If what he says on the subject of slavery was merely intended as eloquent declamation, addressed to the sympathies and impulses of his party, we should not have been disposed to make such an objection. But his work is urged on the world as sound logic, and as of sufficient force to open the eyes of every slaveholder to the wickedness of the act, and to force all such, through the medium of their "moral sense," instantly to set free their slaves.

A moral action must not only be the voluntary offspring of the actor, but must also be performed to be judged by laws which shall determine it to be good or bad. These laws, man being the moral agent, we say, are the laws of God; by them man is to measure his conduct. Mr. Locke says: "Moral good and evil is the conformity or disagreement of our voluntary actions to some law, whereby good or evil is drawn upon us from the will or power of the law-maker." But the doctrine of Dr. Channing seems to be, that this law is *each man's conscience, moral sense, sense of duty, or the inward principle.* If the proposition of Mr. Locke be sound logic, what becomes of these harrangues of Dr. Channing?

We say that the law, rule or power, deciding good or evil, must be from a source far above ourselves; for, if otherwise, the contradictory and confused notions of men must necessarily banish all fixed ideas of good and evil from the earth. In fact, the denial of the elevated, the divine source of such law, is also a denial that God governs—for government without law is a contradiction.

If the "conscience," as Dr. Channing thinks, or his other equivalents, be the guide between right and wrong according to the law of God, then the law of God must be quite changeable. The minds of men differ; each makes his own deductions; therefore, in that case, the law of God must be what each one may severally think it to be; which is only a declaration, in other language, that there is no law at all: "Every way of a man is right in his own eyes" (Prov. xxi, 2), but "The statutes of the Lord are right" (Psalms xix, 8). The laws of God, touching the subject of slavery, are spread through every part of the Scriptures. Human reason may do battle against them, but the only result will be the manifestation of human weakness. The institution of slavery must, of necessity, continue in some form, so long as sin shall have a tendency to lead to death; so long as Jehovah shall rule and exercise the attributes of mercy to fallen, degraded man.

But let us, for a moment, view the facts accompanying the slavery, of the African race, and compare them with Dr. Channing's assertion, page 35, that every slave suffers "a grievous wrong," and, page 49, that every slave owner is a "robber," however unconcious he may be of the fact.

So far as history gives us any knowledge of the African tribes, for the last four thousand years, their condition has been stationary; at least, they have given no evidence of advancement in morals or civilization beyond what has been the immediate effect of the exchange of their own slaves for the commodities of other parts of the world. So far as this trade had influence, it effected almost a total abolition of cannibalism among them. That the cessation of cannibalism was the result of an exchange of their slaves as property for the merchandise of Christian nations, is proved by the fact, that they have returned to their former habits in that respect upon the discontinuance, by those nations, of the slave trade with them. Which is the greatest wrong to an African, to be continued a slave or to be butchered for food because his labor and person are of no value to his owner?

No very accurate statistics can be given of African affairs: the population has been computed at 50,000,000; and to have been about the same for many centuries; a population, of which, even including the wildest tribes, far over four-fifths have ever been slaves amongst themselves. The earliest and most recent travelers among them agree as to the facts: that they are cannibals; that they either are idolaters or have no trace of religion whatever; that, with them, marriage is but promiscuous intercourse; that little or no affection exists between husband and wife, parent and child, old or young; that, in mental and moral capacity, they are but a grade above the brute creation; the slaves and women alone do any labor, and they, often, not enough to keep them from want; that their highest views are to take slaves or massacre a neighboring tribe; that they evince no desire for improvement, or to ameliorate their condition; in short, that they are, and ever have been, from the earliest knowledge civilized nations have had of them, savages of a most debased character. The proofs of all these assertions have been previously given in another section of these studies.

Will any hesitate to acknowledge that, to them, slavery, regulated by law among civilized nations, is a state of moral, mental and physical elevation? A proof of this is found in the fact, that the descendants of such slaves are found to be, in all things, their superiors. If their descendants were found to deteriorate from the condition of their parents, we should hesitate to say that, to them, slavery was a blessing. Which would be considered by man the most like an act of mercy in Jehovah, to continue them in their state of slavery to their brother African and master, or to order them into that condition of slavery in which we find them in these States? Which state of slavery, to the savage or the civilized master, would be preferable?

The Hebrews, Medes, Persians, Chaldeans, Syrians, Greeks and Romans, have, on the borders of Africa, to some extent, amalgamated with them, from time immemorial. But such amalgamation has never been known to attain to the position, either physically, mentally or morally, of their foreign progenitors—perhaps superior to the interior tribes, yet often scarcely exhibiting a mental or moral trace of their foreign extraction. The thoughtless, those of slovenly morals, or those of none at all, from among the descendants of Japheth, have commingled with them in the New World; but the amalgamation never exhibits a corresponding elevation in the direction of the white progenitor. The connection may degrade the parents, but never elevates the offspring. The great mass look upon the connection with abhorrence and loathing, and pity or contempt always attends the footsteps of the aggressor. These feelings are not confined to any particular country or age of the world. Are not these things proof that the descendants of Ham are a deteriorated race? Will the declaration of a few distempered minds as to their religion, feelings and taste, weigh in contradiction? What was the judgment of Isaac and Rebecca on this subject? (See Genesis xxvi, 35; xxvii, 46; also, xxviii, 1.) Since the days of Noah, where are their monuments of art, religion, science and civilization? Is it not a fact that the highest moral and intellectual attainment which the descendants of Ham ever displayed, is now, at this time, manifested among those in servile pupilage? The very fact of their being property gives them protection. What, he their "*robber*" who watches over their welfare with more effect and intensity than all their ancestry together since the days of Noah? By the contrivance of making them "*property*," has God alone given them the protection, which four thousand years of sinking degradation demands, in an upward movement toward their physical, mental and moral improvement—their rational happiness on earth and their hopes of heaven. What, God's agent in this matter a "*robber*" of them?

Let us assure the disciples of Dr. Channing, that there are thousands of slaves, too accurate observers of truth to come to such a conclusion; who, although, from human frailty, may sometimes seem to suffer an occasional or grievous wrong, can yet give good reason, in proof, that slavery is their only safety.

Let us cast the mind back to a period of five hundred years ago. A Christian ship, intent on new discoveries, lands on the African coast. The petty chieftain there is about to sacrifice a number of his slaves, either to appease the manes of his ancestors, to propitiate his gods, or to gratify his appetite by feasting on their flesh. Presents have been made to the natives; it is thought their friendship has been secured; the Christians are invited to the fete; the participants are collected; the victims brought forward, and the club uplifted for the blow. The Christians, struck with surprise, or excited by horror, remonstrate with the chief; to which he sullenly replies: "yonder my goats, my village; all around my domain; *these are my slaves!*" meaning that, by the morals and laws that have, from time immemorial, prevailed there, his rights are absolute; that he feels it as harmless to kill a slave as a goat, or dwell in his village. But the garments of the Christian are presented; the viands of art are offered; the food of civilization is tasted; the cupidity of the savage is tempted, and the fete is celebrated through a novel and more valuable offering. What, these Christians, who have bought these slaves, "*robbers!*"

Let us look back to the days of the house of Saul; when, perhaps, David, hiding himself from his enemy's face, amidst the villages of Ammon, chanced upon the ancestors of Naamah, the mother of Rehoboam, a later king of Israel; finding them about to sacrifice a child upon the alter of Moloch—"stay thy hand!" says the son of Jesse; "I have a message to thee from the God of Israel. Deliver me the child for these thirty pieces of silver;" and, according to the law of the God of his fathers, the child becomes his "bondman forever." What, was David a "robber" in all this? Suppose the child to have been sold, resold, and sold again; is the character of the owner changed thereby?

But it is concerning the rights of the descendants of these slaves, that we have now to inquire. See Luke xvii, 7–10 inclusive:

> 7. "But which of you, having a servant (δουλος, *slave*) plowing, or feeding cattle, will say unto him, by and by, when he has come from the fields, Go and sit down to meat?
>
> 8. "And will not rather say unto him, Make ready wherewith I may sup, and gird thyself and serve me, till I have eaten and drunken; and afterward thou shalt eat and drink?
>
> 9. "Doth he thank that servant (δουλον, *slave*) because he did the things that were commanded him? I trow not.
>
> 10. "So likewise ye, when ye shall have done all those things which are commanded you, say, We are unprofitable servants; we have done that which was our duty to do!"

Suppose a proprietor, in any country, or at any age, receives into his employment an individual, who, thereafter, resides, and has a family upon, his estate. Upon the death of the individual, to his heirs, will any of the rights of the proprietor accrue, other than those granted, or those consequent to their own, or their ancestor's condition, or those that may accrue by the operation of law? Where is the political enactment, the moral precept, the divine command, teaching an adverse doctrine?

Before we close our view of the Doctor's second proposition, we design to notice his use of the word "*nature.*" He says that man has rights, gifts of God, inseparable from *human nature;* we confess that we are, somewhat, at a loss to determine the precise idea the Doctor affixes to this term. The phrase, "*human nature,*" is in most frequent use through these volumes. But in Vol. 1, p. 74, he says, "Great powers, even in their perversion, attest a *glorious nature.*" Pagė 77, "to regard despotism as a law of *nature.*" Page 84, "his superiority to *nature*, as well as to human opposition." Page 95, "We will inquire into the *nature* and fitness of the measures." Page 98, "The first object in education, *naturally*, was to fit him for the field." Page 110, "From the principles of our *nature.*" Page 111, "*Nature*, and the human will, were to bend to his power." *Idem*, "He wanted the sentiments of a common *nature* with his fellow beings." Page 112, "With powers which might have made him a glorious representative, and minister of the beneficent Divinity, and with *natural* sensibilities," &c. Page 119, "traces out the general and all-comprehending laws of *nature.*" Page 125, "which pleads the cause of our oppressed and insulted *nature.*" Page 137, "the whole energy of his *nature.*" Page 143, "a power which robs men of the free use their *nature*," &c. Page 146, "Its efficiency resembles that of darkness and cold in the *natural* world." Page 184, "whose writings seem to be *natural* breathings of the soul." Page 189, "language like this has led men to very injurious modes of regarding themselves and their own *nature.*" *Idem*, "A man, when told perpetually to crucify *himself*, is apt to include, under this word, his whole *nature.*" *Idem*, "Men err in nothing more than in disparaging and wronging their own *nature.*" *Idem*, "If we first regard man's highest *nature.*" Page 190, "We believe that the human mind is akin to that intellectual energy which gave birth to *nature.*" *Idem*, "Taking *human nature* as consisting of a body as well as mind, as including animal desire," &c. *Idem*, "we believe that he, in whom the physical *nature* is unfolded." Page 191, "But excess is not essential to self-regard, and this principle of our *nature* is the last which could be spared." Page 192, "It is the great appointed trial of our moral *nature.*" Page 193, "our *nature* has other elements, or constituents, and vastly higher ones." *Idem*, "for truth, which is its object, is of a universal, impartial *nature.*" Page 196, "is the most signal proof of a high *nature* which can be given." *Idem*, "It is a sovereignty worth more than that over outward *nature.*" *Idem*, "Its great end is to give liberty and energy to our *nature.*" Page 198, "of our moral, intellectual, immortal *nature*, we cannot remember too much." Page 200, "the moral *nature* of religion." Page 202, "We even think that our love of *nature.*" *Idem*, "For the harmonies of *nature* are only his wisdom made visible." Page 203, "that progress in truth is the path of *nature.*" Page 211, "It has the liberality and munificence of *nature*, which not only produces roots and grains, but pours forth fruits and flowers." *Idem*, "It has the variety and bold contrasts of *nature*." *Idem*, "the beautiful and the superficial seem to be *naturally* conjoined." Page 212, "and by a law of his *nature*." Page 213, "Those gloomy and appalling pictures of our *nature*." Page 215, "These conflicts between the passions and the moral *nature*."

We regret that so eminent and accurate a scholar, and so influential a man, should have fallen into such an indefinite and confused use of any portion of our language. If we mistake not, it will require more than usual reflection for the mind to determine what idea is presented by its use in the most of these instances. We know that some use this word so vaguely, that, if required to explain the idea they wished to convey by it, they would be unable to do so. But there are those from whom a better use of language is expected. Many English readers pass over such sentences, without stopping to think what are the distinct ideas of the writer. There are, in our language, a few words used in conversational dialect, as if especially intended for the speaker's aid, when he only had a confused idea, or, perhaps, none at all, of what he desired to say; and we regret, extremely, that words, to us of so much import as *nature* and *conscience*, should be found among that class. The teacher of theology and morals should surely be careful not to lead his pupils into error. Might not the unskilled inquirer infer that *nature* was a substantive existence, taking rank somewhere between man and the Deity? And what would be his notion, derived from the aforesaid use of the term, of its offices? What, of its influence on, and of man's relation with it? What is our notion as to the definite idea these passages convey?

"*Man has rights, gifts of God, inseparable from human nature, of which slavery is the infraction.*"

By "human nature," as here used, we understand the *condition or state of being a man*, in a general sense. Our inference is, then, that God has given man rights—that is, all men the same rights—which are inseparable from his state of being a man; consequently, if, by any means, these rights are taken from him, then his state of being a man is changed, or ceases to exist: and, since slavery breaks these rights, therefore, a slave is not a man! But we find the fact to be, that the slave is, nevertheless, a man; and hence it follows, that these "rights" were not "inseparable" from his state of being a man, or that he had not the "rights."

[Thus far have we extracted from Mr. Fletcher's "Studies on Slavery," not so much with a view to present a continuous and perfect argument, as to give our readers an idea of the author's powers of reasoning, and his care to elaborate sound and defensible views on the subject of slavery. The limits of a single article permit us to do no more.

Mr. Fletcher has a volume in manuscripts on the subject of slavery. He views the institution to be an ordinance of God—the consequent of sin and degradation—bestowed in mercy, and, as existing in this country, the greatest possible blessing to the enslaved race ; but by no means does he hold the American people irresponsible for the abuse of the mighty power of guardianship over a race, whose ancestors could neither protect themselves nor their children from moral degradation and heathenism worse than the lowest slavery that ever darkened the annals of human misery. Great the trust, solemn the responsibility, for the New World to receive the outcasts of earth's eldest continent and teach them the virtue, the restraining power, of labor—the science of life—the hopes of immortal being!]

ART. V.—MEXICAN MINES AND MINERAL RESOURCES IN 1850.

INTRODUCTION; THE MINES OF MEXICO; MEXICO UNDER THE COLONIAL SYSTEM.—BY BRANTZ MAYER.

It is generally supposed that the mineral wealth of America was one of the most powerful stimulants of Spanish conquest and emigration; nor is the idea erroneous if we recollect the manner in which the Castilian power was founded on this continent and the colonial policy it originated. It will be seen by the tables annexed to this article, that the results have largely fulfilled the hopes of European adventurers, and that the wealth of the world has been immensely augmented and sustained by the discovery of the New World.

In the order of the earth's gradual development under the intellectual enterprise or bodily labor of man, we find the most beautiful system of accommodation to the growing wants or capacities of our race. Space is required for the crowded population of the Old World, and a new continent is suddenly opened, into which the cramped and burdened millions may find room for industry and independent existence. The political institutions of Europe decay in consequence of the encroachments of power, the social degradation of large masses by unjust or unwise systems, or the enforced operation of oppressive laws; and a virgin country is forthwith assigned to man, in which the principle of self-government may be tried, without the necessity of casting off by violence the old fetters of feudalism. The increasing industry or invention of the largely augmented population of the earth exacts either a larger amount or a new standard of value for the precious metals, and regions are discovered among the frosts and forests of a far off continent, in which the fable of the golden sands of Pactolus is realized. The labor of man and the flight of time strip commercial countries of their trees; yet, in order to support the required supply of fuel, not only for the comfort and preservation but also for the industry of the race, the heart of the earth, beneath the soil which is required for cultivation, is found to be veined with inexhaustible supplies of mineral coal!

The bounty and the protective forethought of God for his creatures is not only intimated but proved, by these benevolent storehouses of treasure, comfort and freedom; and whilst we acknowledge them with proper gratitude, we should not forget that their acquirement and enduring possession are only to be paid for by labor, thrift, and social as well as political forbearance.

We do not think these observations out of place in an article devoted to the mineral wealth of Mexico. The subject of property and its representative metals, should be approached in a reflective and Christian spirit, in an age in which the political and personal misery of the overcrowded masses of Europe, are forcing them to regard all who are better provided for, or more fortunate by thrift or the accident of both, as enemies to the poor. The demagogue leaders of these wretched classes, pushing the principle of just equalization to a ridiculous and hideous extreme, have not hesitated to declare, in France, since the revolution of February, 1848, that "property is robbery."* We shall not pause to examine or refute this false dogma of a dangerous incendiary. The common sense as well as the common feeling of mankind revolts at it. Property, as the world is constituted by God, is the *source* of new industry—because it is, under the laws of all civilized nations, the *original result* of industry. "*It makes the meat it feeds on.*" Without it there would be no duty of labor, no exercise of human ingenuity or talent, no responsibility, no reward. The mind and body would stagnate under such a monstrous contradiction of all our physical and intellectual laws. The race would degenerate into its former savage condition; and force, itstead of its antagonists, industry and honest competition, would usurp the dominion of the world and end this vicious circle of bastard civilization.

And yet it is the duty of an American—who, from his superior position, both in regard to space in which he can find employment, and equal political laws by which that employment is protected, stands on a vantage ground above the confined and badly governed masses of Europe—to regard the present position of the European masses not only with humane compassion, but to sympathize with that natural feeling that revolts against a state of society which it seems impossible to ameliorate, and yet whose wants or luxuries do not afford them support. It is hard to suffer hunger and to see our dependants die of starvation, when we are both able and willing to work for wages but can obtain no work upon which to exercise our ingenuity or our hands. It is frightful to reflect, says Mr. Carlyle, in one of his admirable essays, that there is hardly an English horse in a condition to labor for his owner, that is deprived of food and lodging, whilst thousands of human beings rise daily from the obscure and comfortless dens in the British isles, who do not know how they shall obtain employment for the day, by which they may purchase a meal.

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* "*La propriete, c'est le vol.*"—Prudhon.

To this dismal account of European suffering, the condition of the American continent affords the best reply. The answer and the remedy are both displayed in the social and political institutions, as well as in the boundless, unoccupied and prolific tracts of our country. Labor cries out for work and recompense from the OLD WORLD; whilst the NEW displays her soil, her mines, her commerce and her trades, as the best *alms* that one nation can bestow on another, because they come direct from God, and are the reward of meritorious *industry*. Before such a tribunal the modern demagogues of continental Europe shrink into insignificance, and the laws of labor are effectually vindicated.

The MINES OF MEXICO have been wrought from the earliest periods. Long before the advent of the Spaniards, the natives of Mexico, like those of Peru, were acquainted with the use of metals. Nor were they contented with such specimens as they found scattered at random on the surface of the earth or in the ravines of mountain torrents, but had already learned to dig shafts, pierce galleries, form needful implements, and trace the metallic veins in the hearts of mountains. We know that they possessed gold, silver, lead, tin, copper and cinnabar. Beautiful samples of jewelry were wrought by them, and gold and silver vases, constructed in Mexico, were sent to Spain by the conquerors, as testimonials of the mineral wealth of the country. The dependent tribes paid their tributes to the sovereign in a species of metallic currency, which, though not stamped by royal order, was yet the representative of a standard value. The exact position of all the mines, from which these treasures were derived by the Aztecs, is not certainly known at the present day; but, as the natives were often compelled to indicate some of the sources of their riches to the conquerors, there is little doubt that the present mineral district of the Republic is that from which they procured their chief supplies.

The mines of Mexico may be classed in eight groups, nearly all of which are placed on the top or on the western slope of the great *Cordillera.* The *first* of these groups has been the most productive, and embraces the districts contiguous to Guanajuato, San Louis Potosi, Charcas, Catorce, Zacatecas, Asientos de Ybarra, Fresnillo and Sombrerete.

The *second* comprises the mines situated west of the city Durango, as well as those in Sinaboa, for the labors of engineers have brought them so close to each other by their works, that they should be united in the same geological division.

The *third* group is the northernmost in Mexico, and is that which embraces the mines of Chihuahua and Cosiguiriachi. It extends from the 27th to the 29th degree of north latitude.

The *fourth* and *fifth* clusters are found northeast of Mexico, and are found by the mines of Real del Morte, or Pachuca, and Zimapan, or El Doctor. Bolanos, in Guadalajara, and Tasco, in Oajaca, are the central points of the *sixth*, *seventh* and *eighth.**

The reader, who will cast his eye over the map of Mexico, will, at once, perceive, that the geographical space, covered by this metalliferous region, is small, when compared with the great extent of the whole country. The eight groups into which the mining districts are divided, occupy a space of twelve thousand square leagues, or one-tenth, only, of the whole extent of the Mexican republic, as it existed previous to the treaty of 1848, and before the mineral wealth of California, and, probably, of New Mexico, was known to the world. But, as that treaty confirmed and ceded to the United States more than one-half of the ancient territory of Mexico, we may estimate the mining region as covering fully one-fifth of the remainder.

Before the discovery and conquest of the West Indies and the American continent, Europe had looked to the East for her chief supplies of treasure. America was discovered by Columbus, not, as was so long imagined, because he foresaw the existence of another continent, but because he sought a shorter route to the rich and golden Zipangon, and to the spice regions of eastern Asia. Columbus and Vespucius both died believing that they had reached eastern Asia, and thus a geographical mistake led to the greatest discovery that has ever been made. In proof of these assertions, we may state, that Columbus designed delivering, *at Cuba*, the missives of the Spanish king to the great Kahn of the Mongols, and that he imagined himself in Mangi, the capital of the southern region of Cathayor China! "The island of Hispaniola" (Hayti), he declares to Pope Alexander VI, in a letter found in the archives of the Duke of Varaguas, "is Tarshish, Ophir and Zipangon. In my second voyage, I have discovered fourteen hundred islands, and a shore of three hundred and thirty-three miles, belonging to the continent of Asia." This *West Indian* Zipangon produced golden fragments, or spangles, weighing eight, ten, and even twenty, pounds.*

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* Humboldt's Essai Politique, book iv, chap. ii. Paris, 1811.

Before the discovery of the *silver* mines of Tasco, on the western slope of the Mexican Cordilleras, in the year 1522, America supplied only *gold* to the Old World; and, consequently, Isabella of Castile was obliged, already in 1497, to modify greatly the relative value of the two precious metals used for currency. This was doubtless the origin of the edict of Medina, which changed the old legal ratio of 1 : 10.7; yet Humboldt has shown, that, from 1492 to 1500, the quantity of gold drawn from the parts of the New World then known, did not amount, annually, to more than about one thousand pounds avoirdupois; and the Pope, Alexander VI, who, by his famous bull, bestowed one-half the earth upon the Spanish kings, only received, in return, from Ferdinand the Catholic, some small fragments of gold from Hayti, to gild a portion of the dome of the Basilica of Santa Maria Maggiore—a gift that was suitably acknowledged in a Latin inscription, in which the offering is set forth as the first that had been received by the Catholic sovereigns from India.

Although the income of treasure must have increased somewhat, yet the working of the American mines did not yield three millions of dollars yearly, until 1545. The ransom of Atahualpa amounted, according to Gomara, to about 425,000 dollars of our standard, or 52,000 marks of silver; whilst the pillage of the temples at Cuzco, if Herrera is to be credited, did not produce more than 25,700 marks, or a little more than a quarter of a million of our currency.†

It has been generally imagined, that the wealth of the New World immediately and largely enriched the Spanish kings, or their people, and that the sovereigns, under whose auspices the discovery was made, participated, at once, in the treasures that were found in the possession of the Indian rulers. Such, however, was not the case. The historian, Ranke, in his essay on the Spanish finances, has shown, by new documents and official vouchers, the small quantity of the precious metals which the American mines and the supposed treasures of the Incas, yielded.‡ It is probable, that the conquerors did not make exact returns to the court of their acquisitions, or that the revenue officers, appointed at an early period of American history, were not remarkable for the fidelity with which they transmitted the sums that came into their possession as servants of the crown, and thus it happened that neither the king of Spain nor his kingdom was speedily enriched by the New World. Baron Humboldt, in one of his late publications, gives an interesting extract from a letter written by a friend of Ferdinand the Catholic, a few days after his death, which exhibits the finances of that king in a different light from that in which they have been hitherto viewed. In an epistle to the bishop of Tuy, Peter Martyn says, that this "lord of many realms—this wearer of so many laurels—this diffuser of the Christian faith and vanquisher of its enemies—died *poor*, in a rustic hut. While he lived, no one imagined that, after his death, it would be discovered that he possessed scarcely money enough, either to defray the ceremony of his sepulture, or to furnish his few retainers with suitable mourning!"*

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* See Humboldt's essay on the production of gold and silver, in the Journal des Economites for March, April and May, 1838.

† See Humboldt's essay on Precious Metals, *ut autea*, in note, in the American translation, given in volume 3d of the Bankers' Magazine, page 509.

‡ See Ranke, Fursten und Volker, vol. 1, pages 347, 355.

The adventurers *in America* were, doubtless, enriched and duly reported their gains to friends at home; but Spain itself was not improved by their acquisitions.

The rise in the prices of grain, and other products of agriculture or human industry, about the middle of the sixteenth century, and especially from 1570 to 1595, indicates the true beginning of the plentiful flow of the precious metals to the Old World, in consequence of which their value diminished and the results of European industry increased in price. This is accounted for by the commencement of the beneficial working of the American mines about that period. The real opening of the mines of Potosi, by the Spanish conquerors, dates from the year 1545; and it was between this epoch and 1595, that the splendid masses of silver, from Tasco, Zacatecas and Pachuca, in New Spain; and from Potosi, Porco and Oruro, in the chain of Peruvian Andes, began to be distributed more uniformly over Europe, and to affect the price of its productions. From the period of the administration of Cortez to the year 1552, when the celebrated mines of Zacatecas were just opened, the export from Mexico rarely reached, annually, in value, 100,000 pesos de oro, or nearly $1,165,000. But from that date it rose rapidly, and, in the years 1569, 1578 and 1587, it was already, respectively, 931,564, 1,111,202 and 1,812,051, *pesos de oro.*†

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* Pet. Mart. Epist., lib. xxix, No. 556, 23d January, 1516.

† The peso de oro is rated by Prescott at $11 65, and by Ramirez at $2 93. See M. Ternaux-Compans's Original Memoirs of the discovery of America (Conquest of Mexico, page 451). Compans publishes in this, for the first time, an official list, sent, between 1522 and 1587, by the viceroys of New Spain, to the

During the last peaceful epoch of the Spanish domination, Baron Humboldt calculates the annual yield of the mines of Mexico at not more than 23,000,000 of dollars, or nearly 1,184,000 pounds avoirdupois, of silver, and 3,500 pounds, avoirdupois, of gold. From 1690 to 1803, $1,330,772,093 were coined in the *only* mint of Mexico; while, from the discovery of New Spain until its independence, about $2,028,000,000; or, two-fifths of all the precious metals which the whole of the New World has supplied during the same period, were furnished by Mexico alone.* It appears, from these data, that the exhaustion of the mines of Mexico is contradicted by the geognostic facts of the country, and, as we shall hereafter show, by the recent issues of Mexican mints. The mint of Zacatecas alone, during the revolutionary epoch, from 1811 to 1833, struck more than $66,332,766; and, in the eleven last years of this period, from four to five millions of dollars were coined by it every year, uninterruptedly.

The general metallic production of the country, which was, of course, impeded by the revolutionary state of New Spain, between 1809 and 1826, has arisen, refreshed from its slumber, so that, according to the last accounts, it has ascended to perhaps twenty millions, annually, in *total* production, in consequence of the prolific yield of the workings at Fresnillo, Chihuahua and Sonora, independent of the abundant production at Zacatecas.†

The Mexican mines were eagerly, and even madly, seized by the English, and even by the people of the United States, as objects of splendid speculation, as soon as the country became settled; but, in consequence of bad management, or the wild spirit of gambling, which assumed the place of prudent commercial enterprise, the holders of stock were either disappointed or, sometimes, ruined. Subsequently, however, the proprietaries have learned, that prudence and the experience of old Mexican miners, were better than the theoretical principles upon which they designed producing larger revenues than had ever been attained by the original Spanish workmen. Their imported,

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mother country. The *Pesos of gold* must be multiplied by a mean of $11 65, in order to give their value in dollars. See Bankers' Magazine, *ut autea*, page 594, in note. See Prescott's History of the Conquest of Mexico, vol. 1, page 320. Ramirez, in his Notes on the Spanish translation of Prescott's History of the Conquest, rates the *peso de oro* at $2 93. This result is reached by a long financial calculation and course of reasoning. See La Conquista de Mejico, vol. 2, at page 89 *of the notes* at the end of the volume.

* This is Humboldt's estimate in the essay cited in this section. We think it rather too large, yet give it upon such high authority. See our general table of Mexican coinage.

† It will be recollected, that all that is extracted from the mines is not coined.

modern machinery and engines, for voiding the shafts and galleries of water, are the chief beneficial improvements introduced since the revolution; but the enormous cost of transporting the heavy materials, in a country where there are no navigable rivers extending into the heart of the land, and where the usual mode of transportation is on the backs of mules, by wretched roads over mountains and through ravines, has often absorbed large portions of the original capital, before the proprietors even began to employ laborers to set up their foreign engines. Many of the first British and American adventurers, or speculators, have thus been ruined by unskillful enterprises in Mexican mines. Their successors, however, are beginning to reap the beneficial results of this expenditure; and, throughout the republic, steam engines, together with the best kinds of hydraulic apparatus, have superseded the Spanish *malacates.*

"Whenever these superb countries, which are so greatly favored by nature," says Humboldt, in his essay on gold and silver, in the Journal des Economites, "shall enjoy perfect peace, after their deep and prolonged internal agitations, new metallic deposits will necessarily be opened and developed. In what region of the globe, except America, can be cited such abundant examples of wealth in *silver?* Let it not be forgotten, that, near Sombrerete, where mines were opened as far back as 1555, the family of Tagoaga (Marquises de Apartado) derived, in the short space of *five months*, from a front of one hundred and two feet in the out-cropping of a silver mine, a net profit of $4,000,000; while, in the mining district of Catorce, in the space of two years and a half, between 1781 and the end of 1783, an ecclesiastic, named Juan Flores, gained $3,500,000, on ground full of chlorid of silver and of *colorados!*"

One of the most flourishing establishments, in 1842, was the Zacatecano-Mejicano mining company of Fresnillo. Its one hundred and twenty shares, which originally cost $22,800, were still held by Spaniards and Mexicans. These mines were originally wrought by the State of Zacatecas; but, in 1836, Santa Anna took possession, by an alleged right of conquest, and rented them, for twelve years, to this successful company. In the first half year of 1841, they produced $1,025,113, at a cost of $761,800, or a clear profit of $263,313.

Mexico, under the colonial system, with the immense product of her mines, and notwithstanding the richness of her soil for agricultural purposes, became almost entirely a silver producing country. The policy of Spain was, as we have already often stated, to be the workshop of the New World, while Mexico and Peru were the treasuries of the Old. The consequence of this was natural. Mexico, one of the finest agricultural and grazing lands in the world, but with no temptations to export her natural products (for she had no markets for them elsewhere) and no roads, canals or rivers, to convey her products to sea-ports for shipment, even if she had possessed consumers in Europe, at once devoted herself to her mines, which were to her both wealth and the representatives of wealth. Her agriculture, accordingly, assumed the standard of the mere national, home-consumption, while the pastoral and horticultural interests followed the same law, except, perhaps, within late years in California, where a profitable trade was carried on by the missions in hides and tallow. From this restrictive law of exportation we, of course, except vanilla, cochineal, and a few other minor articles.

The sources of the wealth of the principal families of Mexico will, consequently, be found in her mines; and an interesting summary of this aristocracy is given by Mr. Ward, in his "Mexico in 1827," to prove the fact. The family of Regla, which possessed large estates in various parts of the country, purchased the whole of them with the proceeds of the mines of Real del Monte. The wealth of the Fagoagas was derived from the great Bonanza of the Pavellon at Sombrerete. The mines of Balanos founded the Vibancos. Valenciana, Ruhl, Perez-Galvez and Otero, are all indebted for their possessions to the mines of Valenciana and Villalpando, at Guanajuato. The family of Sardaneta, formerly Marquises de Rayas, took its rise from the mine of that name. Cata and Mellado enriched their original proprietor, Don Francesco Matias de Busto, Marquis of San Clemente. The three successive fortunes of the celebrated Laborde, of whom we shall speak, hereafter, when we describe Cuernavaca, were derived from the Canada, which bore his name, at Tlalpujahua, and from the mines of Quebradilla and San Acasio, at Zacatecas. The beautiful estates of the Obregones, near Leon, were purchased with the revenues of La Purisima and Concepcion, at Catorce; as was also the estate of Malpasso, acquired by the Gordoas from the products of La Luz. The Zanbranos, discoverers of Guarisamey, owned many of the finest properties in Durango; while Batopillas gave the Bustamentes the opportunity to purchase a title and to enjoy an immense unincumbered income.*

Nevertheless, some of the large fortunes of Mexico were made either by trade or the possession of vast agricultural and cattle estates, in sections of the country where there were either no mines, or where mining was unprofitable. The Agredas were enriched by commerce;

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* Ward's Mexico in 1827, vol. ii, p. 151.

while the descendants of Cortez, who received a royal grant of the valley of Oajaca, together with some Spanish merchants in Jalapa and Vera Cruz, derived the chief part of their fortunes from landed estates, cultivated carefully during the period when the Indians were under better agricultural subjection than at present.

Thus, the mines and the mining districts, by aggregating a large laboring population in a country in which there were, until recently, but few manufactures, and in which the main body of the people engaged either in trades or in tending cattle, became the centers of some of the most active agricultural districts. "The most fertile portions of the table-land are the Baxio, which is immediately contiguous to Guanajuato, and comprises a portion of Valladolid, Guadalajara, Queretaro and Guanajuato, the valley of Toluca and the southern part of the State of Valladolid, which both supply the capital and the mining districts of Tlalpujahua, El Oro, Temascaltepec and Angangeo; the plains of Pachuca and Appam, which extend on either side to the foot of the mountains upon which the mines of Real del Monte Chico are situated; Itzmiquilpan, which owes it existence to Zimapan; Aguas Calientes, by which the great mining town of Zacatecas is supplied; a considerable circle in the vicinity of Sombrerete and Fresnillo; the valley of Jaral and the plains about San Luis Potosi, which town, again, derives its name from the mines of the Cerro de San Pedro, about four leagues from the gates, the supposed superiority of which to the celebrated mines of Potosi, in Peru, gave rise to the appellation of Potosi. A little further north we find the district of Matehuala, now a thriving town with more than seven thousand inhabitants, created by the discovery of Catorce; while about the same time, in the latter part of the last century, Durango rose into importance, from the impulse given to the surrounding country by the labors of Zambrano, at San Dimas and Guarisamey. Its population increased, in twelve years, from eight to twenty thousand, while whole streets and squares were added to its extent by the munificence of that fortunate miner. To the extreme north, Santa Eulalia gave rise to the town of Chihuahua; Batopilas and El Parral became each the center of a little circle of cultivation; Jesus Maria produced a similar effect; Mapimi, Cuencame and Inde, a little more to the southward, served to develop the natural fertility of the banks of the river Nazas; while in the low, hot regions of Sonora and Sinaloa, on the western coast, almost every place designated on the map as a town, was originally, and generally is still, a real, or district for mines."[*]

Such is the case with a multitude of other mines which have formed the nucleii of population in Mexico. They created a market. The men who were at work in the vein required the labor of men on the surface for their support and maintenance. Nor was it food, alone, that these laborers demanded; all kinds of artisans were wanted, and, consequently, towns as well as farms grew up on every side. When these mining dependencies are once formed, as Baron Humboldt justly says, they often survive the mines that gave them birth, and turn to agricultural labors, for the supply of other districts, that industry which was formerly devoted solely to their own region.

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[*] Ward, *ut autea.*

Such are some of the internal advantages to be derived from mining in Mexico, especially when the mines are well and scientifically wrought, and when the miners are kept in proper order, well paid, and, consequently, enabled to purchase the best supplies in the neighboring markets. The mines are, in fact, to Mexico, what the manufacturing districts are to England and the United States; and they must be considered the great support of the national agricultural interests until Mexico becomes a commercial power, and sends abroad other articles besides silver, cochineal and vanilla—the two last of which may be regarded as her monopolies. The operations of this tempting character of *mines*, or of the money they create as well as circulate, is exhibited very remarkably in the rapidity with which the shores of California have been covered with towns and filled with industrious population.

The tabular statement on the 43d page manifests the relative production, and improving or decreasing productiveness, of the several silver districts of Mexico during the comparatively pacific period of ten years antecedent to the war with the United States, which commenced in 1846. While that contest lasted, the agricultural and mineral interests and industry of the country of course suffered, and, consequently, it would be unfair to calculate the metallic yield of Mexico upon the basis of that epoch, or of the years immediately succeeding.

From the table it will be seen (omitting the fractions of dollars and of marks of silver) that the whole tax collected during these ten years, from 1835 to 1844, amounted to $1,988,896 imposed on 15,911,194 marks of silver, the value of which was $131,267,352; the mean yield of *tax* being $198,889, and of the *silver* 1,591,119 in marks, which, estimated at the rate of eight dollars and a quarter per mark, amounts to $13,126,734 annually.

Comparing the first and second periods of five years, we find a difference in the tax, in favor of the latter, of $113,130, or 905,042 marks of silver; showing that, in the latter period, $7,466,596 more were extracted from the Mexican mines than during the former.

If we adopt the decimal basis of calculation, the returns show, *approximately*, the following results:

In Zacatecas, - - - - -	$33\frac{2}{32}$	pr. ct.	In Rosario, Cosala and Mazatlan, - - - -	$2\frac{26}{32}$	pr. ct.
" Guanajuato, - - - -	$21\frac{12}{32}$	" "	" Sombrerete, - - - -	$2\frac{22}{32}$	" "
" San Luis Potosi, -	$7\frac{22}{32}$	" "	" Parral, - - - - - - -	$1\frac{6}{32}$	" "
" Pachuca, - - - - -	$6\frac{24}{32}$	" "	" Zimapan, - - - - -	$\frac{28}{32}$	" "
" Guadalajara, - - -	$5\frac{4}{32}$	" "	" Alamos, - - - - - -	$\frac{27}{32}$	" "
" Mexico, - - - - - -	$4\frac{26}{32}$	" "	" Hermosillo, - - - -	$\frac{26}{32}$	" "
" Durango, - - - - -	$4\frac{18}{32}$	" "	" Oajaca, - - - - - -	$\frac{2}{32}$	" "
" Guadalupe y Calvo,	$3\frac{24}{32}$	" "	" Tasco, - - - - - - -	$\frac{1}{32}$	" "[*]
" Chihuahua y J. Maria,	$4\frac{18}{32}$	" "			

These statements do not include the precious metals produced in Mexico, which were either clandestinely disposed of or used in the manufacture of articles of luxury.

TABLE OF THE GOLD AND SILVER, coined in the eight mints of the Mexican republic from 1st January, 1844, to 1st January, 1845, according to official reports:

Mints.	*Gold.*	*Silver.*	*Total.*
Chihuahua,	$ 61,632 00	$ 290,000 00	$ 351,632 00
Durango,	27,508 00	213,362 30	240,870 30
Gaudalajara,	5,282 51	950,032 63	955,315 34
Gaudalupe y Calvo,	95,004 00	338,124 00	433,128 00
Guanajuato,	441,808 00	4,219,900 00	4,661,708 00
Mexico,	36,172 00	1,688,156 48	1,724,328 48
San Luis Potosi,	....	936,525 50	936,525 50
Zacatecas,	....	4,429,353 40	4,429,358 40
Totals,	$667,406 51	$13,065,454 71	$13,732,861 40

COINAGE OF MEXICO from 1535 to 1850, omitting fractions of a dollar:

Mints.	*Silver.*	*Gold.*	*Copper.*	*Total.*
1535 to 1690, in city of Mexico,	$ 620,000,000	$ 31,000,000	$	$ 651,000,000
1690 to 1844, " "	1,606,225,922	88,597,827	5,323,765	1,700,147,514
1811 to 1844, Chihuahua,	6,629,875	368,248	50,428	7,048,551
1811 to 1844, Durango,	21,815,913	1,986,069	....	23,801,982
1812 to 1844, Guadalajara,	17,840,720	364,629	61,217	18,266,566
1844, Guadalupe y Calvo,	338,124	95,004	....	433,128
1812 to 1844, Guanajuato,	50,998,241	4,370,700	....	55,368,941
1827 to 1844, San Luis Potosi,	18,531,428	....	23,517	18,554,945
1810, 1811 and 1812, Sombrerete,	1,561,249	....	....	1,561,249
1828, 1829 and 1830, Tlalpam,	959,116	203,544	....	1,162,660
1810 to 1844, Zacatecas,	120,375,366	....	107,949	120,483,315
All the Mexican mints from the end of 1844 to the end of 1849, at the rate of $14,000,000 per an., which was the approximate total coinage in 1844.[†]	....	....	....	70,000,000
Totals,	$2,465,275,954	$126,986,021	$5,566,876	$2,667,828,851

RESUME'.

Silver Coinage from 1535 to 1844, inclusive,	$2,465,275,954
Gold " " " "	126,986,021
Copper " 1811 to 1844, "	5,566,876
General " 1845 to 1849, both inclusive,	70,000,000
Total Coinage of Mexico to the present time, or in 314 years,	$2,667,828,851

Or, avoiding fractions, nearly $8,500,000 yearly.

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[*] See Report of the Mexican Minister of Foreign and Domestic Relations, for the year 1846, p. 139 of *Documentos Justificativos.*

[†] The actual coinage of all the mints in the Republic, in 1844, amounted, in fact, to the sum of $13,732,861; but we assume $14,000,000 as a fair annual average for a period of several years.

TABLE EXHIBITING THE PLACES AND THE AMOUNT OF TAX COLLECTED AT EACH, ON EVERY MARK OF SILVER, DURING THE TEN YEARS FROM 1835 TO 1844, DESIGNED TO SHOW THE RELATIVE PRODUCTIVENESS OF THE VARIOUS SILVER DISTRICTS THROUGHOUT THE MEXICAN REPUBLIC.

Places where the Impost or Tax has been collected.	*Product of the tax from 1835 to 1839, both inclusive.*	*Product of the tax from 1840 to 1844, both inclusive.*	*Increase of yield of tax during the last five years.*	*Decrease of yield of tax during the last five years.*	*Value of total Silver product in dollars, at $8 25 per mark.*	*Mean annual of Silver product in dollars, at $8 25 per mark.*
Zacatecas,	$350,715 79	$306,620 51	$	$44,095 28	$43,384,215 70	$4 338,421 48.4
Guanajuato,	197,423 52	228,498 12	31,074 40		28,110,838 20	2,811,083 67.2
San Luis Potosi,	75,682 77	77,373 31.5	1,690 34.5		10,101,716 79	1,010,171 56.9
Pachuca,	58,805 14	75,654 50.5	16,849 36.5		8,874,345 19	887,434 42.1
Guadalajara,	41,520 47	60,067 30.5	18,546 65.5		6,704,804 73	670,480 41.1
Mexico,	31,841 20	63,472 21	31,631 01		6,290,691 56	629,069 14.2
Durango,	49,416 09	40,668 66		8,747 23	5,945,603 66	594,560 30.6
Guadalupe y Calvo,	10,328 55.5	63,733 06.5	53,404 31		*4,888,075 40	488,807 44.8
Sombrerete,	32,405 63	19,385 64		13,019 81	3,418,243 66	341,824 30.6
Chihuahua,	23,293 59	19,940 07		3,353 52	2,853,430 20	285,343 02.4
Cosala,	24,073 71	15,980 12		8,093 61	2,643,566 06	264,356 50.2
Jesus Maria,	8,379 21.5	19,502 11.6	11,122 70.1		1,840,171 41	184,017 17.1
Parral,	13,258 71.5	10,716 39		2,542 32.5	1,582,372 29	158,237 20.5
Zimapan,	8,523 64	9,279 74	756 10		1,175,044 60	117,504 39.6
Alamos,		16,806 62.5	16,806 62.5		1,109,247 19	110,924 59.3
Hermosillo,	5,773 03	10,275 01	4,501 80		1,059,170 60	105,917 07.2
Rosario,	2,517 24	8,939 43	6,422 21		756,150 26	75,615 03.0
Mazatlan,		4,100 54	4,100 54		270,644 00	27,064 32.4
Oajaca,	2,450 38			2,450 38	161,730 20	16,173 02.4
Tasco,	1,474 10			1,474 10	97,290 70	9,729 08.4
Totals,	$937,882 78.5	$1,051,013 37.1	$196,906 06.1	$83,776 25.5	$131,267,352 40	$13,126,734 18.4
Deduct decrease,			83,776 25.5			
Difference in favor of increased yield of tax and, of course, of production, during the last period of five years,			$113,129 80.6			

* See Table No. 1, in the Report of the Mexican Minister of Foreign and Domestic Relations, for 1846.

ART. VI.—RUINS OF CENTRAL AMERICA AND YUCATAN.*

BY ALBERT WELLES ELY, M. D.

How often has it been said, that America, although she has the largest lakes, the largest rivers, the most stupendous cataracts, and the most extensive and lofty chains of mountains in the world, she can yet boast of no antiquities. This is an unmerited reproach, cast upon us by ignorant travelers, and one which, through ignorance of our own country, we have been in the habit of admitting to pass as correct. But the discoveries, of late years, have entirely changed the aspect of things, in regard to American antiquities, at least; so much so, that we can now fairly laugh the Old World to scorn. We can even deny its right to the title of Old World; or, to say the least, we can prove that this is, at least, as old a world as that.

What! no antiquities in America, no old temples, no acres of ground, as in Egypt and Asia, literally covered with ruined palaces, broken columns and fragments of statuary? So say the learned and sprightly male and female book-makers, that have attempted to enlighten this western hemisphere, during the last twenty-five years—chiefly by copying one another. Alas, they little knew what they were writing about. They had gone by moonlight, upon the old castles and abbeys of the Old World, as they may still continue to call it; they had wandered along the Nile, amid the ruins of Karnac, Luxor, and hundred-gated Thebes; they had seated themselves beneath the shadows of the ruined temples of Heliopolis, and gazed with deep sadness upon the sculptured grandeur of Palmyra, in the desert; they had grieved over the fallen greatness of Zenobia's empire, and feasted their eyes on those very scenes, within the Eternal City, that witnessed her a captive in the triumphal marches of a Roman conqueror: they had seen all this, and a great deal more, in their wanderings in the Old World, and they vainly imagined that they had seen all. And so, they honestly sighed over America, and wrote her down, Destitute of ruins, of antiquities—a garden of desolation!

Even the eminent scholar and historian, Robertson, in speaking of the desolations of the Spanish priests and soldiers, at the time of the conquest of Mexico, writes as follows: "At this day, there does not remain the smallest vestige of an Indian building, public or private, in

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* In the sixth volume of the Commercial Review, we published an elaborate paper, upon Central America, and discussed its antiquities, as brought to light by the labors of Stephens, etc. The reader will consult the paper with advantage in this connection.—ED.

Mexico, or any province of New Spain." This broad assertion of the great historian has been long believed—but what an error! Robertson wrote from mere hearsay, and hundreds have copied his errors.

The fact is, that the Spanish historians, the only aids given to Robertson, throw but little light upon the antiquities of the central portions of America. They could not even have known of the existence of any of the ruins belonging to the Toltec race. Those edifices described by Fernando Cortez, in his dispatches to Charles V, by Herrera, Clavigero, De Solis and others, all belonged to the Aztecs, and were the most recent of all existing at the time of the conquest. We have looked, in vain, through such of the Spanish historians as are within our reach, for some knowledge of the stupendous ruins of Copan, Palenque, Chiapa, Quirigua, Santa Cruz del Quiche, Ocosingo, Uxmal, Zayi and Chi-Chen, but we find no trace of them. They were entirely unknown to the Spanish historians. Even Cortez, himself, must have passed within twenty or thirty miles of the vast ruins of Palenque; and yet he says nothing of them.

We should not, then, be surprised that America has been so long decried for its want of antiquities. But what must enlightened Europeans now say of American antiquities? Perhaps they are still incredulous—still withhold an opinion regarding the ruins of America, as even many Americans do.

Of the actual character and extent of the ancient ruins of our continent, we fear there exists, generally, too little exact knowledge. If we may regard the movements of our government as any index of the prevailing ideas, regarding the extent, character and importance, of the vast ruins of Yucatan, Central America and Peru, we must, certainly, come to the conclusion that there exists, on the subject, only a vague idea. For, is it possible, that ruins, that are second only to those of Egypt and the Tigris, could remain so long, if well known, an object of such perfect indifference to our government? The thing is incredible; and yet it is a fact, that, within less than one week's travel of our shores, there are the ruins of vast cities, miles in extent—cities that once covered more ground than any city now in America. The ruined temples, pyramids and palaces, of these vast cities, lie strewed, in the greatest confusion, over many square miles of ground. Palenque is estimated to have been, at least, seventy-five miles in circuit; and Chi-Chen to have been of equal extent with Palenque.

Copan was also a vast city, surrounded by walls, portions of which are now standing, from sixty to ninety feet in height. The ruins of Palenque cover an area of ground thirty-six miles long by twelve wide, and these remains, too, are of the most gigantic description. They are the remains of vast temples, built of stones of the finest masonry. The great palace of Palenque stood on an artificial foundation, whose base is three hundred and ten feet, by two hundred and sixty, and forty feet high, with immense staircases on the four sides. On such a foundation was erected the palace, which measures two hundred and twenty-eight feet long, by one hundred and eighty wide, and twenty-five feet high. In the front and rear are fourteen door-ways, and eleven on each end. The walls of the interior were decorated with admirable stuccoes, elaborate sculptures, and paintings in fresco. Hieroglyphics, in vast profusion, and highly wrought, also ornament the walls and statues.

The ruins of Uxmal and Chi-Chen are described as even more magnificent than those of Palenque. "From their vast extent and variety," says Mr. Catherwood, "they impressed my mind, at the first glance, with the same feelings of wonder and admiration with which I first caught sight of the ruins of Thebes. I will not institute a comparison between Uxmal and the

'World's great Empress on the Egyptian plain :'

but, still, the several *teocalli*, or temples, of the gods, rising *higher than any buildings at Thebes;* the gigantic terraces, supporting immense and solid structures of stone; the vast amount of sculptured decorations, and the novelty and intricacy of the designs—all tend to impress the beholder with sentiments of awe and admiration."

Assuredly there must be something truly grand and magnificent about the ruins of one of these American cities, in order thus to strike, with sentiments of awe and admiration, one who had gazed on the ruins of ancient Thebes itself! One of the temples at Uxmal, which was singularly beautiful and graceful, judging from what remains, stood upon the frustum of a pyramid one hundred feet high, with two noble flights of stairs leading to the top.

The architecture of all these cities, which are now in ruins, is truly Cyclopean, and of an order *sui generis.* The finest architectural taste and proportions appear conspicuously in all of these ruins; which, together with the mechanical skill displayed, the gorgeous, carved ornaments, the figures in *basso relievo*, the elaborate inscriptions carved in hieroglyphics, the fresco paintings on the interior of the walls, and the colossal statues, all prove conclusively that these cities were once occupied by a mighty race of men, approaching, in intelligence and civilization, to the ancient Egyptians, Assyrians and Ninevites.*

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* Si l'ancien continent ne nous présente aucun peuple qui ait fait de la peinture un usage aussi étendu que les Mexicains, c'est qu'en Europe et en Asie nous ne trouvons pas une civilisation également avancée sans la connaissance d'un alphabet ou de certain caractères qui le remplacent, comme les chiffres des Chinois et des Coréens.—*Humboldt*, *Monumens de l'Amerique*, folio, p. 69.

Yucatan and Central America are thickly covered with gigantic ruins of pyramids and walled cities. Do the American people fully realize the fact, that here in our own country we have the most stupendous ruins of cities upon the face of the globe? that some of our ruined structures of Cyclopean masonry are higher than those of Thebes? that we have pyramids, too, greater than many of those of Egypt? There are pyramids in Central America from one hundred and sixty to one hundred and eighty feet high. In a plain, north-east of Mexico, are two great pyramids, dedicated to the sun and moon, and surrounded by several hundred smaller pyramids, which form streets, running exactly north, south, east and west. According to the measurements of M. Oteyza, that dedicated to the sun is one hundred and sixty-five feet in height, or higher than Mycerinus, or the third of the three great pyramids of Djyzeh, in Egypt.

On the tops of the Mexican pyramids were teocallis, or houses of the gods, of vast dimensions, and containing colossal monolithic statues. Some of the statues found at Copan are twenty-four feet in height, all of a single stone. Copan is called the city of idols—innumerable fragments of mutilated statues and highly-carved ornaments being found covering the ground in every direction. All of these statues are covered with hieroglyphics, as well as numberless slabs of stone, doorways, &c., all, doubtless, speaking a wonderful history of the remotest ages.

To get any thing like a correct idea of the vast ruins of America, without actually seeing them, one should peruse the works of our countrymen, Stephens and Catherwood, and also those of our fellow-citizen, B. M. Norman, of New Orleans. The large work of Mr. Catherwood, in folio, containing large and accurate drawings of many of these ruins, should be carefully examined. But above all, the works of Humboldt—his Researches, his New Spain, and particularly his *Vues des Cordillères et Monumens de l'Amerique*, a magnificent folio, containing large, colored drawings of Mexican and Peruvian antiquities. No one can rise from the perusal of the above works, without a mingled feeling of wonder and regret—regret that, teeming, as this western continent actually does, with the most astonishing architectural remains, all pointing to the remotest past, no effort, worthy of the name, has yet been made to investigate them.

The object of this brief paper is not to develop any thing new on the subject of American antiquities, but to call the attention of the public to these astonishing remains of a mighty race of men who once inhabited this continent. Can it be possible, that the real character of these vast ruins is well known to our government, when they fit out expeditions to the South Pole, and to explore the Dead Sea? Must we go so far from home as that to find wonders, when here, in the very heart of America, we have the most astonishing ruins that the world can afford? We talk of visiting the banks of the Nile to see pyramids, when here at home we have pyramids equally as vast and wonderful, and, in all probability, as old. We talk of the ruins of Ninevah, that "exceeding great city of three days' journey," when here, within a week's travel of New Orleans, we have Ninevahs and Tadmors, and Baalbecs, and hundred-gated Thebes!

These vast ruins, through the exquisite architectural skill which they display, their Cyclopean dimensions, and the astonishing mechanical force which the architects must have had at their command,* are the enduring, living monuments and witnesses of what the first inhabitants of this continent must have been. From Yucatan to the southern limits of Peru, these ruined cities are scattered a distance of more than two thousand miles, and all bearing the same evidence of vast antiquity as those of Egypt, of Syria and of India.

They could have been no puny, half-civilized race; nor did they acquire such skill in architecture, in painting, and in many of the common arts of life, as is displayed by abundant remains, in a few short centuries only. We are prepared to defend the high antiquity of our American ruins, notwithstanding the Toltec origin assigned to many of them by Stephens and Catherwood. A succession of architectural formations, observable in these ruins, carries us far back into the misty past, where truth is mingled with fable, men with demi-gods, and where it is difficult to fix the starting point of history. Each stone in these ruins proclaims, by its mysterious hieroglyphics, the mighty race that wrought them—living, too, far anterior to the commencement of history. We can read the age of the world as distinctly in its architectural transitions, as in its geological series; and, indeed, where geology ceases to continue the record of the world's history, there architecture takes up the tale and brings it down to the present age. "The genius of the past," says a late writer,† "stands revealed to us in a succession of architectural formations, which succeed each other in a regular series. While Egypt builds pyramids, other nations of the globe are not shaping domes; while Greece erects the columns around her shrines, her cotemporaries are no where building spires. The pyramid jutting forth in Egypt, like the primitive granite among the mountain pines, underlies all these subsequent architectural developments. The succession of these architectural forms produces a complete chain, which carries man's history and his manifestations into regions of time where the pen of the historian trembles to penetrate. Give but a link of this chain, and the archæologist can assign its place in the whole series, with the same exactness as the geologist determines the chronological era of the fossil by its peculiar strata."

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* Humboldt says, that he found, in the ruins of Peru, blocks of hewn stone, composing the walls of edifices, some of which blocks were thirty-six feet long, nineteen wide, and six thick. What must have been the mechanical skill and the machinery, by which they handled such blocks? But this is not all: they were taken from quarries in the side of a mountain thirteen thousand feet high, and transported ten miles. The skill of the workmen employed in the masonry is not surpassed at the present day.—*Humboldt's Researches.*

† R. Carey Long.

There is, then, what is called an architectonic ethnography, by which we may discern the interior quality of a people, the character of their religion, laws and institutions, and the era of their existence.

And what a vast field for discovery do these ruins of America afford to the world. We have an Egypt, with all of its pyramids, temples, colossal statues and hieroglyphics, here in the very heart of the western continent. The mighty race that formed these vast masses of exquisite masonry, unsurpassed in workmanship and proportions by any thing of the present day, have left upon them their language and their history—but, alas, we cannot read them! The genius of the past beckons to the wondering traveler, as he wanders amid the broken fragments of these remains, pointing him to Chi-Chen, Palenque and Copan. There read the hieroglyphics of the temples and statues, and the thousand questions that seem to start up in your mind will be answered. But, alas! no mortal eyes—the eye of God alone—can read these inscriptions. We have no Rosetta stone, no Champollion.

Wonderful, too, as these ruins are, with what perfect indifference are they looked upon by our government! It is true that some facilities were afforded to Mr. Stephens for making explorations; it is true that Mr. Squiers, now in Central America, is commmissioned to make explorations; but how inadequate the means thus afforded for exploring the vast ruins of what was once another world! It is quite evident that our government, thus far, looks upon these ruins as matters, perhaps, of some curiosity, but yet of quite secondary importance, when compared with the duties of a *charge d'affaires* to a petty military despotism of Central America; and, so long as such a view is taken of the subject, just so long will these vast ruins be neglected.

Such is the real importance of these vast ruins, that the historical societies, and other scientific associations of this country, should immediately take the subject in hand; and, if they could not persuade our government at Washington to undertake the exploration of these ruins, on a scale suited to their extent and importance, then the scientific associations themselves should combine and fit out a corps of scientific explorers, to enter the ruins, make excavations, drawings, measurements, etc., etc., leaving nothing untouched, no stone unturned. It would be a glorious work, and one that, while it enriched history and many departments of science, would reflect high and enduring honor on those who were engaged in it.

ART. VII.—THE BEAUTIFUL.

BY THE EDITOR.[*]

> Beautiful!
> How beautiful is all this visible world!—MANFRED.

THE truths of philosophy are the sober revelations of the intellect; the truths of poetry are the lights of the soul, the rapt visions of ideal glory, which shadow forth the high destinies of the immortal. There is a head and a heart to humanity; in the one originates the philosopher, in the other the poet. With his abstraction, and his metaphysics, dim thought sits upon the philosopher's brow; but the fervor, the devotion and the enthusiasm, light up the poet's world. With man, the philosopher, we have no sympathy now; in the midnight, the taper and the closet, comes man, the philosopher, with his diagrams and his tomes: the Bacon, the Locke, the Des Cartes, the Kant—a gloomy array! Our thoughts are rebellious under the restraint; they would wanton amid other prospects, they pant for the plenitude of freedom with man, the poet.

The Beautiful! how often have our souls been ravished with its contemplation! The Religious! has it not interwoven itself with every fiber of our constitution! Can we say no more? Are the ideas independent and isolated, or do they harmonize and blend? Who has not sought for and realized the beautiful in the religious? The beautiful in the religious! does not the religious live and breathe in the beautiful? Search the heart, heedless mortal; there is more there than the loftiest flight of your philosophy has revealed: let the head not repine at its ignorance, the HEART will understand us.

The Beautiful speaks, and the soul answers from its depths; what if the sage only can reach the philosophy of its language, the whole world is possessed of its alphabet and its grammar. Go, sage, and in the sublime regions of thought and mathematics, build for yourself a world, and find a God; humble yourself before that God. Come, peasant, you have never heard of abstraction and mathematics; savage, leave your cave; is there need for a God to you—a God portrayed in the lineaments of mildness and of love? Take courage, the sensibility plays as important a part as the intellect; poetry is as true as prose: both harmonize and work, both play their grand parts in the constitution of nature.

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[*] If this "unconsidered trifle," the product of past hours, could afford to the reader one tithe of the pleasure the author realizes in the thousand associations of other days that cluster around it, he would, with all his heart, pardon the innocent egotism of its insertion.

The Beautiful! O God! what a field have we to roam over here—what a miracle is this world to us; this world, with its features of loveliness, chiseled, and softened, and glowing! Plato, who can wonder that these features had a soul within for thee, the soul of Beauty—pierce through the external crust and reach it—the concentration and the essence—God! God in nature, hear him, see him, Θεος εν εμιν.* The thunders and the lightning, the earthquake; the sky shakes and the heavens are convulsed. How dreadfully the flame darts! Splintered, riven, how yon sturdy oak stretches forth its old arms from the sapless trunk! Where have fled the vigor and the life of yon fearful, blackened corpse? but a moment since, and those livid lips were fair and warm to discourse of love. Shrink back, son of earth, trembling, sinking; there is no beauty here for you—there is fear. Nature makes other revelations than those of the terrible, or man had never yielded to the soft impulses of love; man had never been religious.

The little infant—watch the gradual opening and development of mind. Does the darkness delight, or does it turn to seek the light? Shut out the day's radiance and its gaze is fastened upon the taper, it follows it; how its little arms are outstretched to reach the moon! Man, watch that infant—it smiles, the innocent smiles, those scarce developed features are not dumb, that infant already feels the mysterious agency of the beautiful. O! who can tell, in the ignorance and darkness which surround us and baffle our inquiries—who can tell, but in that first thought is fixed the incipiency of the idea, which, developing and perfecting itself in after times, arrives, at last, on the confines of thought, to acknowledge the Eternal—the Omnipotent—the God.

Throw away your books, philosopher, leave your closet and your speculations; the peasant has a lesson for you, and will teach it cheerfully; the poor Indian cares nothing for your books and your closets. He has a book—it is nature; he has a closet—it is the world. See him bow to the East, on Persia's shore, to greet the chariot of the sun as it rolls along the sky. Is there error in that poor Indian, to see

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* We have no favor for the pantheism which exists in Plato. Divinity may be found in nature without being confounded with it. Plato's language is plain, ours figurative; he looked *into*, we "*through* nature up to nature's God." Nor have we much sympathy for the transcendental philosophy which seeks to confuse all things in its idealism.

"God in clouds, and hear him in the wind?"

The worshipers of the sun are the worshipers of the Beautiful; even the error, rather than the ignorance: "I had rather believe," says Bacon, "in all the fables of the Alcoran and the Talmud, than that this universal frame is without mind."

How touching, how exquisitely touching, the conception of Magna Græcia's sage! * Was it not enough that the old philosopher found all nature vocal here—the songsters of the grove, the forest's dirge, the sublime ocean's roar, the harp of Æolus!

"Wild nature, warbling all beyond the reach of art."

Is there even music beyond this empire of clay? Is it the characteristic of æsthetics to be terrestrial? Mount the sky, philosopher, upward, through the ethereal vault; softly, gently. What touch was that that swept the strings? Distant melody, scarce audible, like angels' whispers; rising, swelling, it breaks upon the ear—entrancing! ecstacy! Eternal strains of melody and song! harp strung with worlds, and swept by the minstrelsy of God! Do we dream how much we are indebted to music, when the soul feels its imperishable essence—when the bonds gall it, the crime disgusts it, the fetters break and the spirit soars, reveling amid worlds, and suns, and systems, on the bosom of eternity?

"Music religious hearts inspires;
It wakes the soul—it lifts it high—
It fills it with sublime desires,
And fits it to bespeak the Deity."

What sermons, too, the fragile flowers of the field preach! Is the language of the flower but the fiction of the poet? Is the primrose "the primrose, and no more?" Heartless man! Have you never conversed with the flowers of the field when the dew-drop glistened on them, and they turned their heads to Heaven? Go, dwell at the pole, where the ice congeals into the mountain, and the snows never thaw; you have not known love, you have not known religion. These flow-

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* Pythagoras, who—
——— "the full consenting choir beheld,
And first discerned the sacred band of love,
The kind attraction, that, to central suns,
Binds circling earths."—Thomson.

ers have been painted to mirror forth the beautiful; and why the beautiful?[*] God has not made them

> ———— "to blush unseen,
> And waste their sweetness on the desert air."

Let us be instructed by their touching lessons; and when the heart is breaking, and every hope and prospect seems withered and crushed, seek the garden and converse with the flowers.

Woman, too—fair, beautiful woman! how she transports us, bewildered, to heaven!—how she breaks the ice that congealed at the heart! Crime flies at the rebuke of her presence. Encircled by the fiery sword of the cherubim that waved around Eden, she is protected forever from the advance of impurity; a soft, steady, exhaustless lamp, to guide the virtuous to safety and to God!

> "Your lover is little better than a pagan:
> On the heart's shrine he rears a human idol;
> Imagination heightens every charm—
> Brings down celestial attributes to clothe it,
> And dupes the willing soul, until at length
> He kneels unto a creature of the brain—
> A bright abstraction."

But where are the mountains and the valleys—the fountains, the cascades, and the Niagaras—the rainbow—the borealis—the deep sky, studded with suns—the pebbles—the shells—the grottoes? Are these voiceless—or have they their revelations, too? Ah, yes! man feels among them, as one has eloquently expressed it, "that he is surrounded with holiness"—that "nature is holy." Amid such holiness, can impiety and vice hold up their heads, and live? Must man be the only exception, and introduce deformity into the world? He cannot, dares not, mar this picture; even the savage confesses it, when he turns and stays the pointed shaft, to apologize and obtain the pardon of the variegated serpent he is about to slay.[†]

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[*] "Beauty exists in the lover's mind," says the poet. Were all men blind, the world's deformity would be complete. Why glitters the universe in its myriads of radiant and lovely forms, if none may gaze upon them. Waller, in a beautiful sonnet, has well expressed the idea—imitating from Euripides (Medea 540–41)—

> ———— Ει' δὲ γῆς ἐπ' ἐσχάτοις
> 'Οροισιν ᾤκεις, ουκ ἂν ἦν λογος σεθεν, etc.

> "Tell her that's young
> And shuns to have her beauties spied,
> That, hadst thou sprung [a flower]
> In deserts, where no men abide,
> Thou must have uncommended died."

[†] Such was the exquisite sense of the beautiful which the Greeks possessed, that it influenced their daily lives, thoughts, motions, actions, morals, laws, &c.

From how many thousand forms of matter did Milton cull the loveliness which his fancy threw around the garden of Paradise? The garden lived in the poet's mind; but he had gathered its elements amid

> "Beautiful forms, and eyes that are made
> Of sunbeams—with softest dew-drops arrayed."

"The mountains are my altars," exclaimed one of the brightest and most gifted of the sons of men, when accused of irreligion.

> "Creation's heir!
> The world—the world is mine!"

was the enthusiastic exclamation of another, when, impoverished and without any of this world's distinctions, he stood upon the mountain's brow, to reach the distant vision. What a crime were it for such men to sin! Here, amid these scenes, the heart glows and enlarges; here the inspiration and the fire descend, which, touching the lips, transform the meanest of us into the poet—our littleness and our greatness rushing, in their overwhelming might, upon the soul. Happy man! with the universe for a college, and every atom for a preceptor!

O God! we thank thee for this feeling thou hast implanted within us, and for the thousand modifications of the universe which call it into exercise. Let our souls be ever alive to the contemplation of the Beautiful; let us feel its holiness and its religion; and, rising from the forms on which thou hast implanted it here, let the heart, purified from the dross of mortality, break the glass which dims its vision, and ascend to the divine contemplation of HIM, who combines within himself every lineament and every element of the BEAUTIFUL!

In its atmosphere they lived, breathed and had their being. In Athens, a man was put to death for wringing off the neck of a fluttering and frightened little sparrow, which, seeking refuge from a hawk, nestled itself in his bosom! The Areopagites executed a boy for picking out the eyes of a little bird with a pin. These, to be sure, were exhibitions of sentiment in excess, and remind us of the remark of Robespierre to a woman, who accidentally stepped upon the foot of his lap dog, and who was retiring in bitterness and despair over the fate of her husband, which her supplications and tears could not avert—"*Madam, have you no humanity?*" See Aukland's Penal Law, Quinctillian's Inst., Montesquieu, &c.

ART. VIII.—MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.*

REMARKS ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE RIVER MISSI SSIPPI.—BY ALBERT STEIN OF MOBILE, ALABAMA.

THE force of gravitation having once set the water of a river in motion, its velocity is regulated by the inclination of its surface, the perimeter of the cross-section of its bed, the form and condition of the channel through which it flows, and the direction of its course.

The velocity of a small river, all other things being equal, is more retarded than that of a large one—having to contend against a greater resistance in proportion of the perimeter of its cross-section to the area of the same. Confining the water, therefore, in a channel of a normal breadth, by diminishing the perimeter, or the resistance, must add to the velocity of the current, increase its scouring power, and enable it to deepen its channel. On the other hand, the expansion of water in a river increases the resistance and lessens the velocity, thereby leading to the formation of shoals.

When the channel of a river is in some places narrow and in others wide, the water which passes with an accelerated motion from the narrow part into the wide one, strikes against the slowly moving mass of water there, and, mingling with it, proceeds onward with a decreased velocity. This want of uniformity in the channel, produces, therefore, a like want of uniformity in the velocity of the current in different parts of the channel, causing, thereby, a greater rise in the surface, and, consequently, overflows.

When the bed of a river is regular, the channel straight, and the inclination of the surface corresponds with that of the bottom of the bed, the resistance is uniform, and the velocity becomes the same. Uniformity in the surface being thus produced, the danger of overflow is diminished.

When we consider the effects produced upon the velocity of a river by the expansion or contraction of the water, and also by the uniformity or want of uniformity in its channel, we are led to the following conclusions, which are supported by the best authority, that of practical experience founded on actual experiment:

If the perimeter, or sum of the bottom and sides of the cross-section, be great in comparison with the area of the same, and the volume less concentrated, the velocity is diminished. On the other hand, if the perimeter be small in proportion to the area of the cross-section, the volume of water being more concentrated, its velocity is increased.

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* The reader will find other able articles upon the same and kindred subjects by Mr. Stein, in the seventh and eighth volumes of Commercial Review.

By giving to the cross-section of a river, therefore, such a form that the perimeter for a given area be a *minimum*, or the area for a given perimeter be a *maximum*, we decrease the resistance, concentrate the volume of water, and increase the velocity.

In order that the water assume a permanent motion, it is necessary that the resistance which it meets in its passage, must destroy the accelerating power of the fall. This resistance depends on the cross-section and perimeter touched by the water, as well as on the velocity of the current, the length of the river, and the fall.

If the cross-section, the perimeter and the fall in a given length, are known, the mean velocity of water may be calculated by the following formula:

$$v = 96.3 \frac{\sqrt{\text{area} \times \text{fall}}}{\text{perimeter} \times \text{length}};$$

or, the mean velocity of water in a cross-section is equal to 96.3 times the square root of the area of the cross-section, multiplied by the fall and divided by the perimeter multiplied by the length.

For example: If the breadth of the river Mississippi be 2,000 feet, the mean depth 80 feet, or the area of the cross-section 160,000 square feet, the perimeter 2,160 feet, and the fall 12 feet in the length of 600,000 feet, the mean velocity will be 3.707 feet per second, and the quantity of water discharged 593,120 cubic feet per second. Again: If the breadth be only 1,600 feet, the mean depth 100 feet, which will give the same area of cross-section, 160,000 square feet, the perimeter 1,800 feet, and the fall 12 feet in the length of 600,000 feet, the mean velocity will be 4.060 feet per second.

These two calculations, simple in themselves, yet based upon principles long established by actual experiments, show that the concentration of the water by the contraction of the channel of the river from 2,000 to 1,600 feet of its breadth, will add 4.060 — 3.707 = 0.353 feet to its velocity. Can there be a clearer or more decisive proof, if indeed proof be necessary, to support the proposition, that contracting the channel of a river increases the power of its current, while permitting its water to spread itself out in a wide channel checks its velocity and dissipates its force.

The calculations show the advantage of confining the river within such a breadth of channel as will secure a degree of velocity that will keep it open and clear, and afford sufficient room for a free discharge of its water, and, at the same time, preserve the banks from abrasion. They also show, that when the water is concentrated within a channel of a normal breadth, its surface is lowered, from the simple fact that it runs off faster.

From the above formula, we derive that the fall necessary to discharge a given quantity of water, is

$$= \frac{\text{square of mean velocity} \times \text{perimeter} \times \text{length}}{9273.7 \times \text{area of the cross-section};}$$

or, the fall in a given length is equal the square of the mean velocity multiplied by the perimeter and the length, and divided by 9273.7 times the area of the cross-section.

For example: If, according to the first example, the breadth of the river be 2,000 feet, the depth 80 feet, the mean velocity 3.707 feet per second, and the length of the course of the river be reduced by cut-offs from 600,000 to 400,000 feet, the fall necessary to discharge the quantity of water, which is 593,120 cubic feet per second, will be 8 feet. This shows that by the assumed shortening of the course of the river, we gain a fall of 4 feet, or lower the surface of the river at the upper end of the length so much, and render the inclination of the surface of the river more regular.

The advantage of uniformity in the channel of a river has been alluded to already, and must be obvious to every one. If the channel of a river be in one place straight and in another circuitous, in one place narrow and in another wide, in one place deep and in another shallow, if there be an island here and a shoal there, its condition will be not only an objection in the present, on account of the obstruction and inconvenience to which its navigation may be subject and to the danger of overflow to which it may expose the adjacent lands, but it will be still more objectionable in the future, for the certainty which it holds out of continual change.

Sometimes the uniformity of a channel is broken by the formation of an island, which weakens, by dividing the force of the volume of water in the river, has a tendency to form shoals immediately above and below it, and checks the velocity of the water in the reach above. The effect produced by islands upon the general course of a river is highly injurious to its navigation by causing a tendency to change in the character of its channel.

A circuitous course also interferes materially with the utility as well as uniformity of a river. It presents a greater resistance to the water and checks the velocity. The water, in its passage round the bend, is carried by its centrifugal force against the concave bank which it is continually washing away, thereby increasing the bend more and more. The velocity and free discharge of the water being thus checked by the increased resistance, shoals are generally formed from the inability of the current to sweep along with it the sedimentary matter with which its water is loaded. The increased resistance caused by the circuitous character of the channel, dams back the water, produces an elevation of its surface, and therefore a decrease of velocity, and exposes the adjacent lands to the danger of overflow.

Shoals in the bed of a river, like dams, have the effect of checking the progress of the water toward the sea, by opposing barriers to it. By checking the velocity of the current in the reach above, and preventing the free discharge of the water, they cause the deposit of sedimentary matter, which gradually elevates the bed of the river and enhances the danger of future overflows.

When a flood first comes down from above, it forms a wave or swell on the surface of the water already in the river. If the course of the river be straight and there be no obstruction in its channel, this wave will be low and will soon subside—there being a free discharge of the water. But if the velocity of the water and its consequent free discharge be checked by bends, islands or shoals, the wave or swell necessarily becomes higher than it would otherwise be, and the danger of overflow is also greater.

The bar at the mouth of the Mississippi, composed of a vast accumulation of mud and sand, one hundred feet above the bottom of the bed of the river at New Orleans, dams back the water and produces an elevation of its surface, and a consequent decrease of velocity. An increase in the elevation of the bar, or heighth of swell, would involve the upper reach of the river in floods to which it had not been previously subjected. The water below the horizontal line drawn from the summit of the bar at the mouth until it strikes the bottom of the river in the upper reach, cannot be perfectly dead, because the surface of the river inclines toward the Gulf; but will undoubtedly check the velocity of the water from above and cause a greater elevation of its surface in the upper reach.

The mouth of the pass through which the Mississippi empties its water being expanded by the action of the waves from the Gulf in high winds, and the action of the water of the river in high floods, added to the unprotected state of the banks extending into the Gulf, causes an undue expansion of the channel and a corresponding dissipation of the strength, and a decrease of the velocity of the water, in the very place where both strength and velocity could be most effectively useful. There can be no doubt that the river, in high floods, discharges a sufficient volume of water, were it properly directed and concentrated, to sweep away all shoals and all bars composed merely of sand and mud.

Hitherto the Mississippi has been entirely neglected. Its water has been permitted to make its way to the Gulf in such channels as chance or circumstance might direct. No attempt has ever yet been made to regulate or direct its course nor even to control its waters, except by the construction of levees; and that has been done more for the purpose of permitting the cultivation of the adjacent lands, than with any view to a systematic regulation of its channel. The fact that overflows are becoming more frequent, and the damage inflicted by each succeeding overflow more extensive, shows very conclusively that the time is rapidly approaching, if it be not already come, when the river must be attended to, or the whole lower channel of the river, will undergo changes, that will involve in distress and ruin most of those who now live upon its banks. Neither would it be a difficult matter to improve the channel of the river so as to give it such uniformity of depth and velocity as would increase its utility as a commercial outlet for the great valley through which it flows, and, at the same time, give perfect security to the adjacent lands and the people who reside upon its banks. The water of the river is the great lever, capable of accomplishing all the improvement that may be desired, provided it be judiciously directed.

The great object to be sought for, in the improvement of the Mississippi river, is the lowering of the bed; for, in accomplishing this, we accomplish all that is necessary. If we can do this, we secure the adjacent lands, from the injurious effects of filtration, and entirely remove the danger of overflow, while, at the same time, we increase its capacity for commercial uses. Our first step in the accomplishment of this most desirable end, is to produce uniformity in the width of the channel.

Where the channel has expanded and the water has been permitted to spread itself out beyond its average width, it should be concentrated. The water, in a wide reach, being thus contracted, acquires an increase of velocity, and corresponding increase of power, and soon removes any shoal that may have accumulated there in consequence of the expansion of the water hitherto and its corresponding decrease of velocity. This uniformity of velocity gradually tends to produce uniformity in the depth of the water and the fall of the bed.

Where the water of the river has been divided by an island into two separate channels, thus weakening its power, checking its velocity and producing shoals, the more circuitous of the two channels should be closed and the more direct left open. The water, being thus confined to one channel, will soon remove, or can be made to remove, any defect or obstruction which may have been caused by the division.

Where the uniformity of the channel is interrupted by a bend in the river, the velocity of the current checked by the increased resistance, and the bed of the river elevated by the deposit of sedimentary matter, a cut-off, seasonably, judiciously and properly made, will shorten and straighten the course of the river, increase the velocity, deepen the channel, relieve the reach above from the accumulation of water kept back by the increased resistance of the bend and the deposit of sedimentary matter, lower the surface of its water, and remove all danger of overflow.

Where there is a bar at the mouth of a river, as there is at the mouth of each of the passes of the Mississippi, and where the water that flows over the bar has been much diminished in volume and velocity by a number of outlets and its force still further dissipated and weakened by an undue and unnecessary expansion of the channel at the mouth, the only remedy is the closing up of these outlets and the contraction of the mouth by permanent banks within a width of channel uniform with that above. By the adoption of this course, the water being confined, its velocity increased and its power concentrated, the whole force of the river is brought to bear upon the bar, which, if it be composed of mere mud and sand, is obliged to give way before it, and gradually, but certainly, increase the depth of water over it.

From these remarks it will appear evident, that the best and in fact only safe agent in the improvement of the river Mississippi, is its own water — as volume and velocity combine a power, that, properly directed, is all-sufficient for the purpose. It is the volume of water in a river, and its velocity, that make the channel, and very little observation is necessary to convince any one, that, wherever the volume is dissipated or divided and the velocity diminished, there shoals or bars are generally found, and the water is kept back and prevented from discharging itself freely; while, on the other hand, wherever the water is confined within a channel of a normal breadth, the velocity is sufficient to keep it open and deep enough to discharge its water freely.

Connected with the river Mississippi, in high water, is a number of bayous, lagoons, or dead-water lakes, into which the surplus water of the river flows in time of high floods, where they remain as in a reservoir, to return again when the water in the main channel begins to subside. Were the bed of the river deeper than it is, these would be no longer necessary as repositories for the surplus water, and the communication with the water of the river might be cut off without danger; but, in the present evidently elevated condition of the bed, they are highly useful in checking the too rapid and high rise, and too sudden fall, of its floods. The northern lakes may, in like manner, though on a far more extensive scale, be looked upon as reservoirs and equalizers of the St. Lawrence. Such is the influence they exercise on that river, that the difference between low and high water mark at Montreal does not exceed two feet.

The idea, however, which seems to be entertained by some, that outlets or channels additional to the main one, through which portions of the water are discharged, are useful in relieving the river in high water, and preventing overflows, is altogether a mistaken one. It is true a lateral outlet, newly opened, may afford a temporary relief in time of high water; but, instead of doing a permanent benefit to the channel of the river, it only serves to increase the cause that gives rise to the evil, to prevent which it was adopted as an expedient. From the increasing frequency and destructiveness of overflows it is evident that the bed of the river is being elevated. This can only arise from the deposit of sedimentary matter, caused by a diminution of the velocity of the current wherever the elevation has taken place. Any diminution of the volume of water in the river will necessarily cause a decrease of its velocity, and that, of course, will cause an increase of deposits.

An outlet, therefore, though it may afford a temporary relief this year, by relieving the river of its surplus water, yet, by diminishing the volume of water in the river, and consequently decreasing the velocity, it causes a still greater increase of the deposits, and a more rapid elevation of the river's bed—the very cause of the evil complained of—so that, next year, the bed of the river having risen still higher, the danger of overflow becomes still greater. The end and object of any system that may be adopted for the improvement of the Mississippi should be to deepen its bed. Any system that may be proposed, however it may appear to have a temporary beneficial effect, if it should in any way, directly or indirectly, immediately or remotely, have a tendency to elevate the bed of the river, should be unhesitatingly rejected. such a system, instead of being one of improvement, would end in the filling up of the present channel, and the ruin of those whose interests are involved in its continuance.

The lateral branches or outlets of the Mississippi, have a shorter course to the Gulf, a greater fall and, consequently, a much greater velocity, in proportion to the volume of water in their channels. It will be found, also, on examination, that the velocity of their respective currents near the bottom is much greater than in the Mississippi. The consequence is, that, while the bed of the Mississippi is evidently becoming more elevated, the greater scouring power in the current of those outlets is deepening their channels, and that they are yearly receiving a larger portion of the water of the main river. Should this process be permitted to continue, without any effort to counteract it, the final result must be, that one of those outlets will one day become the main channel, through which the great mass of water from above will discharge itself.

The velocity of water in a river diminishes from the surface toward the bottom, where the resistance is greatest. The following rule, which is founded on experiment, will enable us, when we have the velocity at the surface, to find the velocity at the bottom of a perpendicular. The velocity at the bottom of a river is equal to the velocity at the surface minus 0.008 multiplied by the velocity at the surface multiplied by the depth $= v - 0.008\, vd$.

For example: If the velocity at the surface be five feet per second, and the depth one hundred feet, the velocity at the bottom is equal to $5 - 0.008 \times 5 \times 100 = 1$ foot per second.

According to experiment, the velocity of the water, on a sandy bottom, should not exceed one foot per second, to prevent it from wearing away, and the channel from deepening. Any velocity at the bottom of those outlets, exceeding this, must, necessarily, enlarge the area of their cross-sections, and increase the discharge, in a given time—while the velocity in the Mississippi will continue to decrease and the bed become elevated.

In order to show, by calculation, the effect of the division of a river into two separate and equal branches: Let the breadth of the undivided river be two thousand feet, the depth eighty feet, and the fall ten feet, in the length of five hundred and twenty-eight thousand feet: the mean velocity, by the foregoing formula, will be 3.6 feet per second, and the discharge, five hundred and seventy-six thousand cubic feet per second.

If the division be so arranged, according to the laws which govern the uniform motion of the water in open channels, that the breadth of each of the branches be three-fourths of that of the undivided river, or $2{,}000 \times 0.75 = 1{,}500$ feet, the depth of water sixty-one feet, the perimeter one thousand six hundred and twenty-two feet, and the fall to remain as above, ten feet, in the length of five hundred and twenty-eight thousand feet. The mean velocity, by the foregoing formula, will be 3.148, and the discharge, two hundred and eighty-eight thousand and forty-two cubic feet per second, or half the quantity discharged by the undivided river.

By the former rule laid down, the velocity, at the bottom of the undivided river, will be $3.6 - 0.008 \times 3.6 \times 80 = 1.3$ feet per second, while the velocity, at the bottom of the branches, will be $3.148 - 0.008 \times 3.148 \times 61 = 1.6$ feet per second.

This ought to be sufficient to satisfy any one of the pernicious effects of the division of the water of a river into separate branches, or outlets. In the first place, the two channels occupy one thousand feet more breadth, and present so much the more resistance to the water, which, on that account, and because their volume, in each channel, is less than when united, and the depth decreased, suffer a corresponding loss in velocity. This shows, conclusively, that the whole volume of water in the river is much better able to deepen its channel, or keep it clear, than when it is divided into branches; and that, if it cannot do either in the former case, it is far less likely to do it in the latter.

In order to render more clear the principles laid down in these views, I will give a table containing, in feet, the length of the Mississippi, from the Gulf to the bayou La Fourche, bayou Plaquemine, bayou Manchac and the Atchafalaya, with the fall, mean breadth, mean depth, mean velocity, velocity at the bottom, and its discharge in cubic feet. In the table will also be found the above mentioned outlets, with the length in feet from the commencement of their mouths, with their fall, mean breadth, mean depth, mean velocity, velocity at the bottom, and also their discharge in cubic feet. The length of the river to the different points named, as well as that of the outlets, is taken from Latourette's map of Louisiana. The cross-sections of the river and outlets are assumed. I also assume an outlet from New Orleans to lake Pontchartrain, and subject to the same calculations:

MISSISSIPPI RIVER.	*Length in feet.*	*Fall at high water, in feet.*	*Breadth in feet.*	*Mean depth in feet.*	*Mean velocity in feet per second.*	*Velocity at the bottom, in ft., per sec.*	*Discharge in cubic feet per second.*
From the Gulf to Bayou La Fourche, 180 miles,...	950,400	18	2,000	100	4	1	800,000
" " do. to do. Plaquemine, 210 " ...	1,108,800	21	2,000	100	4	1	800,000
" " do. to do. Manchac, 220 " ...	1,161,600	22	2,000	100	4	1	800,000
" " do. to the Atchafalaya, 300 " ...	1,584,000	30	2,000	100	4	1	800,000
LATERAL BRANCHES.							
Bayou La Fourche, from the Gulf to the Mississippi, 100 miles,..	528,000	18	1,000	30	3	2.8	90,000
Bayou Plaquemine, from the Gulf to the Mississippi, 60 miles..	316,800	21	1,000	30	4.2	3.8	126,000
Bayou Manchac, from the Gulf to the Mississippi, 60 miles,..	264,000	22	1,000	30	4.7	4.3	141,000
Atchafalaya, from the Gulf to the Mississippi, 110 miles,..	580,000	30	1,000	30	3.7	3.4	111,000
Outlet, from the Lake to the Mississippi, above New Orleans, 5 miles,..	26,400	15	1,000	30	12	9.2	260,000

From the above table, it must be evident, at a glance, that, though the mean velocity of the water in the Mississippi may differ but little from that of the water in the outlets, yet, that the velocity at the bottom of the latter is much greater than that of the former, and that a much stronger scouring power is at work, gradually clearing out and deepening their channels, which must render them capable of discharging, every year, a larger quantity of water from the main channel, which, of course, must continue to diminish its volume, decrease its velocity, increase its deposits, elevate its bed and augment the danger of overflows.

The assumed outlet from the Mississippi, above New Orleans, into lake Pontchartrain, shows, conclusively, the danger attendant upon outlets. An outlet made in the place assumed would have so great a fall, in proportion to the length of its course, that the result would necessarily be a velocity that would soon open for itself a channel, deep enough and large enough to divert the entire volume of water in the Mississippi, from its present channel, into the lake Pontchartrain.

Let us assume the breadth of the Mississippi, opposite New Orleans, to be two thousand feet, the mean depth one hundred feet, and the fall, at high water, fourteen feet, in the length of 100 miles, or five hundred and twenty-eight thousand feet, and we have the mean velocity 4.73 feet per second, and the discharge nine hundred and forty-six thousand cubic feet per second.

Assuming that the Mississippi and Atchafalaya have each of them a breadth of two thousand feet, a mean velocity of 4.73 feet per second and a length of five hundred and twenty-eight thousand feet—but that the mean depth of the Mississippi is one hundred feet, while that of the Atchafalaya is only sixty feet—the required fall for the former will be fourteen feet, and for the latter 22.5 feet.

From this it is evident that a greater depth of channel in the Mississippi would enable it to discharge its water with less fall, even though the velocity were the same; and also, that, at present, the former affords a better vent than the latter for the immense volume of water that flows through its valley, and, consequently, that much the largest portion of it passes through its channel on its way to the Gulf. How long this preference may continue, depends upon the means that may be used to prevent the former from gradually filling up its bed, while the latter is deepening and enlarging its channel.

If, in addition to what we have already stated, it be assumed that the levees contribute to the elevation of the bed of the river, and consequent decrease of its ability to discharge its water, no dependence can be placed on the continuance of the present condition of the river. It is, therefore, advisable, that measures should be adopted, and that speedily, to improve the course of the river by lowering its bed and reducing the vertical rise of the surface of its water.

In expressing these views I have only to regret that I am not in possession of the necessary levels, and geometrical and hydrometrical measurements, that would enable me to write more definitely on this exceedingly important subject.

From the foregoing remarks, and those which I have previously made on the improvement of the Mississippi river, the following conclusion may be drawn:

1st. That shoals, bars and islands, circuitous and expanded channels, have each and all of them the effect of checking the velocity of the water, preventing its free discharge, increasing the deposits, elevating the bed of the river, adding to the vertical rise of its surface, and increasing the danger of overflow; and, also, that outlets, by diminishing the volume of its water, tend to the very same end.

2d. That, by making the channel, as far as practical, straight, uniform and of a normal breadth, and by confining the entire volume of water within the main channel, shutting up all outlets not absolutely necessary to be left open, the water will be discharged more freely, the velocity will be made more uniform, shoals and bars will be swept away, the bed of the river lowered, the vertical rise of the surface reduced, and overflows, if not entirely prevented, rendered less frequent and less destructive.

3d. That, by regulating the quantity of water to be discharged by the Mississippi and the outlets above named, the tendency of the former to elevate its bed, and of the latter to deepen and enlarge their channels, may be so counteracted as to prevent permanent mischief to the present main channel and the interests connected with its continuance.

4th. That, in order to place within the reach of those who may be selected to direct the works that may be undertaken for the improvement of the Mississippi, all the information necessary to enable them to direct to the best advantage, correct hydrometrical measurements, levels and observations, should be taken to determine the normal breadth of the river, the proper distance of the levees from each side of the channel, the cross-sectional area of the stream in the main channel, and the outlets for mean and high water, the velocity of the water at every important point in the main channel and outlets from the Gulf up, as far as may be deemed necessary, &c., &c.

The above views, such as they are, I offer to the consideration of those who are most interested in inquiring whether they are correct or not. They are not mere idle speculations, adopted without reflection, and supported only by hasty and superficial examinations. They are in accordance with the principles laid down by the best writers on hydraulics. I have ventured to lay them before the public, because I have long felt satisfied that no system based upon principles different from those embraced in them, can ever permanently improve the condition of the Mississippi, and that to these views those most interested in the improvement of that river must come at last, if they desire to continue the present channel and preserve themselves from ruin.

MOBILE, May 5, 1850.

ART. IX.—LITERATURE OF SPAIN.*

EARLY HISTORY OF SPAIN; THE SPANISH LANGUAGE; THE EARLY BALLADS; ROMANCES OF CHIVALRY; THE PARTIDAS; THE INQUISITION; CERVANTES AND DON QUIXOTE; LOPE DE VEGA AND CALDERON; DECLINE OF SPANISH LETTERS.—BY THE EDITOR.

IT is with emotions of melancholy we are accustomed to regard the decline of Spain, and her glories faded into dust, from the high rank in the politics of Europe accorded, at one time, to her by universal consent. The victim of arbitrary and despotic power—the theater of court intrigues and revolutions—with a wealthy, dominant, but unscrupulous, hierarchy fattening upon the substance of the land, and repressing and crushing out the vital energies of the people by a system of intolerence the most perfect, and a total suppression of all light and knowledge; broken up, by almost impassable physical divisions, into provinces distinct in character, institutions and customs; without commerce or manufactures; with agriculture degraded to the lowest condition, and the landed interests monopolized by princes and nobles of Church and State; industry denied its accustomed motives, security and reward: such is Spain; and we naturally contrast her position with what it was when Charles V had extended his dominions too widely for the sun ever to set upon them—or when, at a still earlier period, her monarch parceled out the world by treaty, and reserved to himself, of its empire and its treasures, by far the greater and the wealthier part. The admonition is a solemn one, which it becomes us all to heed in the day of our pride, our arrogance and our power!

To imagine that the literature of a nation will not be influenced and determined by its political and social condition, would be in violation of all the teachings of experience. The history of Spain, in every period, confirms the judgment; and we gather, with a fidelity and truthfulness which is never once at fault, from the earliest ballads of the country—the chronicles, the books of chivalry, *romanceros* and drama—all the incidents and evidences of progress or decline of the Spanish people, through their romantic struggles, defeats and triumphs, from the earliest Moorish invasion to the present times.

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* History of Spanish Literature, by George Ticknor. 3 vols. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1849. Glimpses of Spain, or Notes of an Unfinished Tour in 1847, by S. T. Wallis. Harper & Brothers. 1849.

We were in almost entire ignorance of the variety, richness and extent, of the literature of Spain, before the publication of the comprehensive work of Mr. Ticknor, referred to at the head of our article. The world is indebted to this gentleman for one of the most elaborate and faithful exhibitions of the literary progress and decay of a nation, at all times attracting a romantic interest, which has appeared in any language; and the scholar will not know which to admire most, the elegance of its arrangement and classic beauty of style, or the profound and enthusiastic researches, conducted amidst the buried, obscure and almost forgotten, records of the remote past.

The work of Ticknor, we need not say, is a credit to American literature, and, like those of Prescott and Irving, marks an epoch in its history. It has been the labor almost of a life—as the author tells us he began, as early as 1818, the collection of materials for it, in a visit to Spain, and has added to them ever since, until he has gathered the most magnificent collection of Spanish literary works to be found in America.

The volumes on our table possess a degree of interest and attraction, not to be surpassed by any that have been published in the present century, and open upon us a world as novel as that which the genius of Columbus made bare to the adventurers of Castile and Aragon.

No country in Europe has passed through a greater number of changes and revolutions than Spain. Its earliest records run back in antiquity to the Iberians, a fierce and warlike people who overspread the peninsula, and whose descendants are supposed to be the Biscayans, from many peculiarities in their institutions and manners of the present day. This people were overpowered by the Celts, who were among the earliest of those hordes that poured down upon Europe from Asia; but at what period the event occurred is involved in obscurity. The contest was long and terrible; and, when the races, at last, were extinguished in each other, their names were preserved in the appropriate appellation, derived from the two, *Celtiberian.* The reputation of the country for the precious metals attracted, soon after, the Phenicians, from across the Mediterranean; and they planted colonies near the pillars of Hercules, near Cadiz, and on the banks of the Guadalquiver—adding greatly thereby to their own wealth, rank and consequence. The Carthagenians, who were of the same race, after the first Punic war, took entire possession of the country, which they at last yielded to the Scipios and the triumphant Roman armies, in the year 201, B. C. Two whole centuries of bloodshed and crime elapsed, before the Roman power was securely established in the peninsula.

The Romans introduced innumerable colonies into Spain, and with them all the civilization and refinement of Italy. On every hand was clearly recognized the influences of a power, which, having shaken the thrones of all the world, began itself to exhibit the tokens of decay. Extraordinary privileges were accorded to this favorite province, which, in return, contributed more than any other to the resources and wealth of the capital. The Latin became almost the language of the country—corrupted, it is true, on the introduction of Christianity, by ignorant ecclesiastics. The first foreigners elevated to the consulship, or honored with a public triumph, was Balbus, from Cadiz; and the first that occupied the throne of the Cæsars, was Trajan, a native of Seville. Portius Latro, a Spaniard, opened, in the metropolis, a school for Roman rhetoric, and numbered, among his pupils, Octavius Cæsar, Mæcenas, Marcus Agrippa and Ovid. The two Senecas, Lucan, Martial, Columella, the able writer on agriculture, and, probably, Quinctilian, were also natives of Spain.

The fifth century introduced a new and melancholy era in the history of southern Europe, and witnessed every trace of civilization and progress swept away in wreck and ruin, by the barbarian hordes, who, emerging from the northern fastnesses of Asia, from Tartary and from Germany, tumultuously passed the Rhine and possessed themselves, by easy conquest, of the gardens of the world.

In the character of her conquerors Spain was fortunate. The Goths had already occupied Italy, and become acquainted with its laws, manners and language. The Visigoths were converts to Christianity, and exhibited a remarkable disposition for law and order, as we perceive, in the criminal and civil code adopted by them, among the first measures of administration. Their language, being unwritten, remained barbarous and but slightly affiliated with the corrupted Latin which continued to maintain its rank. The union of the two languages, at last, went very far toward the production of the modern Spanish.

But Spain was destined to another great convulsion, whose influences extended over eight centuries, and are associated with nearly every thing that is chivalrous, romantic and glorious, in her early history. The followers of Mohammed had overrun Asia, Egypt, and all the north of Africa. They descended upon Spain, and, in the battle of the Gaudalete, and in the three succeeding years, shattered to pieces the Gothic power, except in the north-west, where, under Pelayo, the

Christians had taken refuge. From this point began those heroic but desperate struggles—in which were involved, on the one hand, all the associations of home, of nationality and religion; and, on the other, the pride, the power and splendor, of the Mohammedan empire—lasting through eight hundred years, and only brought to a close, after the fall of Granada witnessed the triumph of Christian power, and the banner of the Cross floating over the Alhambra, and over every wall and tower of the peninsula.

The Moorish power in Spain was marked by much that was glorious in civilization, in luxury and letters; and, amid the darkness and gloom which had settled upon Europe, shone forth with steady and almost dazzling brightness. Men of letters congregated there from all the world, attracted by its libraries, its schools and its scholars; and many of the regenerating influences which, long afterward, dissipated the night of the middle ages, may be traced to the intellectual empires of Cordova and Granada.

The Gothicized Latin of the Christians, coming now in intimate association with the Arabic, a more polished and refined one, adopted many of its forms, and borrowed copiously from its vocabulary. The change was gradual and continuous, and, about the middle of the twelfth century, the amalgamated elements had risen to the dignity of a written language, known, ever since, as the Castilian, or Spanish. From this period is traced the history of Spanish literature.

Here we recognize, according to Mr. Ticknor, the existence, in Spain, of a language, spreading gradually throughout the greater part of the country, different from the pure or the corrupted Latin, and still more different from the Arabic, yet obviously formed by a union of both, modified by the analogies and spirit of the Gothic constructions and dialects, and containing some remains of the vocabularies of the Spanish tribes, of the Iberians, the Celts and the Phenicians, who, at different periods, had occupied nearly or quite the whole of the peninsula. This language was called, originally, the *Romance*, because it was so much formed out of the language of the Romans; later it was called *Spanish*, and at last, more frequently, called *Castilian*, from that portion of the country whose political power grew to be so predominant, as to give its dialect a preponderance over all others. The proportion of all these elements is estimated, by Sarmiento: six-tenths of Latin origin, one-tenth Greek and ecclesiastical, one-tenth northern, one-tenth Arabic, one-tenth East Indian, American, Gipsey, modern German, French and Italian.

The remarks which we shall now venture upon the literature and writers of Spain, will be arranged under the three great divisions adopted by Mr. Ticknor, and, as our space is limited, will necessarily be brief and imperfect:

Period I.—OF SPANISH LITERATURE, FROM THE END OF THE TWELFTH CENTURY TO THE EMPIRE OF CHARLES V.

Period II.—FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH TO THE END OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Period III.—FROM THE ACCESSION OF THE BOURBON FAMILY TO THE INVASION OF BONAPARTE.

The first of these periods embraces all those elements which are entirely native, and which were developed during the protracted struggles of Christians and Moors, partaking, both in their poetry and prose, in a high degree, of the wild and heroic character of times, such as the old chroniclers describe, when "kings and counts and nobles, and all the knights that took pride in arms, stabled their horses in the rooms where they slept with their wives, to the end that, when they heard the war cry, they might find their horses and arms at hand, and mount instantly at its summons." The second period marks the imitation of Provencial and Italian refinement, and a departure from the original genius and spirit—whilst the two together furnish the main elements and characteristics of the present literature of Spain.

The first known author in the Castilian was one Gonzalo, a priest, who lived about 1240, and wrote an octavo volume of poems, mostly of the religious order. The following, from his Mourning of the Virgin at the Cross, is very life-like:

"My son, in me and thee life still was felt as one;
I loved thee much, and thou lovedst me in perfectness, my son;
My faith in thee was sure, and I thy faith had won,
And doth thy large and pitying fate forget me now, my son?
My son, forget me not, but take my soul with thine—
The earth holds but one heart that kindred is with mine,
John, whom thou gav'st to be my child, who here with me doth pine:
I pray thee, then, that to my prayer thou graciously incline."

Previously to this, however, there are many anonymous poems, the most celebrated of which is that of the Cid, consisting of about three thousand lines. The Cid was a popular hero of the chivalrous age of Spain, and the poem narrates, with stirring, graphic, yet rude, power, the long series of glorious exploits, that marked his eventful and splendid military career. It is, besides, a faithful and simple picture of the manners, customs and institutions, of that romantic period. We shall extract two passages; the first describing the challenge of Munio Gustioz to Assur Gonzales, at the meeting of the Cortes:

Assar Gonzales was entering at the door,
With his ermine mantle trailing along the floor;
With his sauntering pace and his hardy look,
Of manners, or of courtesy, little heed he took;

He was hot and flushed with breakfast and with drink.
"What, ho! my masters, your spirits seem to sink!
Have we no new and stirring from the Cid, Ruy Diaz, of Bivar?
Has he been to Riodivirna, to besiege the windmills there?
Does he tax the millers for their toll? or is that practice past?
Will he make a match for his daughters—another like the last?"
Munio Gustioz rose and made reply:
"Traitor, wilt thou never cease to slander and to lie?
You breakfast before mass, you drink before you pray;
There is no honor in your heart, nor truth in what you say;
You cheat your comrade and your lord, you flatter to betray.
Your hatred I despise, your friendship I defy.
False to all mankind, and most to God on high,
I shall force you to confess that what I say is true."
Thus was ended the parley and challenge betwixt these two.

The next known author in Castilian literature is Alfonso the Tenth, or, as he is distinguished in history, "Alfonso the wise." A poet and a philosopher, it was said of him, "he was more fit for letters than for the government of his subjects; he studied the heavens and watched the stars, but forgot the earth and lost his kingdom." To this monarch the world is indebted for that code which has had so wide an influence for its wisdom and equity, and which, at this day, constitutes almost the common law of Spain—the "*Partidas*." This valuable work was undertaken in 1263 or 1265, and called *Las Siete Partidas*, or the "seven parts," from the number of divisions contained. It is distinguished in general for a peaceful and polished style, working upon the materials of the Decretals, the Digest and Code of Justinian, the Fuero Juzgo, a collection of Visigoth laws made by St. Ferdinand, the father of Alfonso, and other Spanish and foreign authorities. The Partidas, however, differs very much in nature and character from the Justinian and Napolean codes, and is rather a collection of legal, moral and religious treatises, systematically arranged. It abounds in discussions of various kinds, and presents, according to Mr. Ticknor, a digested result of the readings of a learned monarch and his coadjutors in the thirteenth century, on the relative duty of a king and his subjects, and on the entire legislation and police, ecclesiastical, civil and moral, to which, in their opinion, Spain should be subjected; the whole interspersed with discussions, sometimes more quaint than grave, etc., etc.

This code, though it was not for nearly a century recognized as of binding authority in Spain, has ever afterward maintained the highest rank in that country and her colonies, and, since the annexation of Louisiana and Florida to the United States, has been consulted constantly and applied by our jurists.

As this is a matter of deep interest to a large portion of our countrymen, we are tempted to go more than we otherwise would into detail in its discussion. The *old code* of Louisiana, 1808, digested by Moreau Lislet and James Brown, according to Judge Martin, was based, among other sources of authority, upon the *Partidas;* and he tells us, in another place, that the Fuero Viejo, Fuero Juzgo, Partidas Recopilaciones Leyes de las Indias, Autos Acordados, and Royal Schedules, remained parts of the written law of the Territory at the period of the purchase, when not repealed expressly or by implication. Few if any copies of some of these were in the hands of the lawyers. "To explain them, Spanish commentators were consulted, and the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, and its own commentators. To eke out any deficiency, the lawyers who came from France or Hispaniola read Pothier, D' Agnesseau, Dumoulin, &c.* In Beard *v.* Poydras (4 Martin's Reports, 368), the old supreme court considered O'Reilly's publication of the Spanish laws, etc., as the introduction of the Spanish code in all its parts, into the province. Afterward in the elaborate and splendid decision read by Porter, in Saul *v.* his creditors (5 N. S., 576) it was held, where our own statutes furnish no guide for decision, recourse must be had to the Spanish laws as they formerly existed in this State. After the publication of the new civil code of 1826 and the act of 1828, abolishing the French, Spanish and Roman laws, the court (in 13 L. R., 198) held the repeal as extending only to the positive, written or statute laws of those nations, and only such as were introductory of a new rule, and *not to those which were merely declaratory*. It was not intended to abrogate the principles of law settled by the decisions of courts of justice. There are other decisions upon the same point, and the one in 10 L. R., 99, considers the repeal *perfect* for all Spanish laws in force after the promulgation of the code of 1808. The new constitution, 1845, declares (Tit. ix, art. 142) all laws in force at the adoption of this constitution and not inconsistent therewith, shall continue as if the same had not been adopted.

The *Partidas* are discussed in Wheaton's Report of Cases in the U. S. Supreme Court, vol. v, appendix, and also in other important cases before the same tribunal (Wheaton, vol. 3, p. 202). A translation of the entire work, with notes, was published in New Orleans, in 1820, by Moreeau Lislet & Henry Carleton, in two volumes. We extract the following references to the original from the preface:

"The *Partidas*, of which we will now speak, is the most perfect system of Spanish laws, and may be advantageously compared with any code published in the most enlightened ages of the world. These laws, the unceasing subject of the praise and admiration of every jurist acquainted with them, were compiled in imitation of the Roman pandects, and may be considered as the digest of the laws of Spain, containing, in addition to the canonical ordinances, all the civil laws in force in that kingdom at the time of their promulgation. Ferdinand III had projected that great work, in order to prevent confusion and diversity in the jurisprudence of the empire, by establishing uniform rules of legal decision. But the sudden death of that monarch prevented the execution of a project which was afterward accomplished by the wisdom of Alphonso, his son and successor. Alphonso nominated four Spanish jurisconsults, to whom he committed the execution of the intended work. These enlightened men, whose names have not come down to us, entered upon the arduous task in the year 1256, and actually accomplished it in the space of seven years. They borrowed from the canonical laws of Spain, all those parts of the new code which relate to matters of a religious nature. Those which relate to civil and criminal matters, were taken from those usages and customs which the law-giver thought fit to preserve, but principally from the Roman laws, which the compilers freely translated almost literally, although they carefully avoided confessing that fact.

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* History Louisiana, volume ii, p. 292.

The Partidas may, therefore, be considered as containing the fundamental principles of the law of Spain. And when we reflect that they were compiled amid the tumult of arms and almost perpetual wars waged by that kingdom against the Moors, and in an age when most of the states of Europe were without any regular systems of jurisprudence, our admiration of this code is raised to the highest pitch. Yet we should reflect, that, even at that time, the Spaniards were preparing themselves to act the wonderful part they sustained under the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, and the still more brilliant one of Charles V; that the spirit of chivalry had already softened the asperity of early manners; that the Moors had introduced in Spain the arts and the love of letters, which they had brought over with them from Africa, and that the pandects of Justinian had, some time before, been found at Amalfi, and were everywhere studied, so as greatly to facilitate the execution of this work."

Among the earliest monuments of Spanish literature, the "Ballads" occupy a distinguished place. The first lispings of the muse seem to have taken this form, for which it is not difficult to account, considering the extraordinary character of the times. Those which have been preserved to us in the various collections, and which, no doubt, suffered mutilation in their long traditionary passage, are very numerous, breathe a spirit of genuine poetic fervor, religion, patriotism and chivalry; and, being the product of a people more advanced in civilization and refinement, are considered greatly superior in literary excellence to the early Scotch and English ballads. They are purely *Castilian*, and expressive of the national sympathies and spirit in so high and perfect a degree, as to be sung by the muleteers of Spain of the present day precisely as they were heard by Don Quixote in his adventures to Toboso. Love, war, religion, chivalry and heroism, are their subjects; and, partaking of the spirit of those glorious struggles for God, liberty and nationality, which for so many hundred years were displayed by the Christians of Spain, they burn with all the fires of a lofty and genuine inspiration. The authors and dates of most of these are unknown, and the collection, as embraced in the "*Romanceros Generales*," consists of above a thousand poems. The reader will be obliged to us for a few specimens abstracted from the general mass. Count Claros is taken to task by his uncle, the Archbishop, for excess of gallantry, and, in reply, immortalizes his name as synonymous, all over Spain, with that of "true lover" and knight. The Archbishop would seem to have been no admirer of the tender sex:

"It grieves me, Count, it grieves my heart,
That thus they urge thy fate;
Since this fond guilt upon thy part
Was still no crime of state.
For all the errors love can bring,
Deserve not mortal pain;
And I have knelt before the King,
To free thee from thy chain:
But he, the King, with angry pride,
Would hear no word I spoke;
'The sentence is pronounced,' he cried,
'Who may its power revoke?'
'The Infanta's love you won,' he says,
'When you her guardian were.'
O, cousin, less, if you were wise,
For ladies you would care.
For he that labors most for them
Your fate will always prove,
Since death or ruin none escape,
Who trust their dangerous love."
"O uncle, uncle, words like these
A true heart never hears;
For I would rather die to please,
Than live and not be theirs."

A true and Christian knight, was this Count Claros, whose memory should be enshrined in the heart of every love-sick swain or maiden, while time shall last. The Archbishop, we doubt not, ventured upon no other lecture, but abandoned the case as a hopeless one; and Archbishops have been equally successful from the days of Count Claros to our own. We now give a beautiful fragment, which marks the manners and events of the times when Moor and Christian were in constant and deadly conflict:

I was the Moorish maid, Morayma,
I was that maiden, dark and fair;
A Christian came, he seemed in sorrow—
Full of falsehood came he there.
Moorish he spoke—he spoke it well—
"Open the door, thou Moorish maid,
So shalt thou be by Allah blessed;
So shall I save my forfeit head."
"But how can I, alone and weak,
Unbar and know not who is there?"
"But I'm the Moor, the Moor Masote,
The brother of thy mother dear:
A Christian fell beneath my hand.
The alcalde comes, he comes apace,
And if thou open not thy door,
I perish here before thy face."
I rose in haste, I rose in fear,
I seized my cloak, I missed my vest,
And rushing to the fatal door,
I threw it wide at his behest.

On the death of Ferdinand and the division of the kingdom between his children, the Cid approaches Zamora, a town which fell to one of the daughters, in the service of her brother, who wages a bloody war. This daughter, from one of the high towers, thus addresses the warrior, who was formerly her lover:

Away, away! proud Roderic!
Castilian proud, away!
Bethink thee of that olden time,
That happy, honored day,
When, at St. James's holy shrine,
Thy knighthood first was won;
When Ferdinand, my royal sire,
Confessed thee for his son.

He gave thee then thy knightly arms,
  My mother gave thy steed;
Thy spurs were buckled by these hands,
  That thou no grace might'st need.

And had not chance forbid the vow,
  I thought with thee to wed;
But Count Lozano's daughter fair,
  Thy happy bride was led.

With her came wealth, an ample store,
  But power was mine and state;
Broad lands are good, and have their grace,
  But he that reigns is great.

Thy wife is well, thy match was wise;
  Yet, Roderic! at thy side
A vassal's daughter sits by thee,
  And not a royal bride!

We conclude this department, however, unwillingly, with the simple and touchingly beautiful ballad, where an elder sister reproaches the younger, on noticing her first symptoms of love. It would seem that the tender inspiration differed little five hundred years ago and now, and its unmistakeable signs are as recognizable in our day, in Laura, Mary, Sally or Betsy, as in simple "little Jane" in the ballad:

Her sister, Miguella,
  Once chid little Jane,
And the words that she spoke
  Gave a great deal of pain:

"You went, yesterday, playing,
  A child, like the rest;
And now you come out,
  More than other girls, dressed.

"You take pleasure in sighs,
  In sad music delight;
With the dawning you rise,
  Yet sit up half the night.

"When you take up your work,
  You look vacant and stare,
And gaze on your sampler,
  But miss the stitch there.

"You're in love, people say—
  Your actions all show it;
New ways we shall have
  When mother shall know it.

"She'll nail up the windows
  And lock up the door;
Leave to frolic and dance
  She will give us no more.

"Old aunt will be sent
  To take us to mass,
And stop all our talk
  With the girls as we pass.

"And when we walk out,
  She will bid our old shrew
Keep a faithful account
  Of what our eyes do;

"And mark who goes by,
  If I peep through the blind,
And be sure to detect us
  In looking behind.

"Thus for your idle follies,
  Must I suffer, too,
And, though nothing I've done,
  Be punished like you?"

"O sister Miguella,
  Your chiding pray spare;
That I've troubles, you guess,
  But not what they are.

"Young Pedro it is,
  Old Juan's fair youth;
But he's gone to the wars,
  And where is his truth?

"I loved him sincerely,
  I loved all he said;
But I fear he is fickle,
  I fear he is fled!

"He is gone of free choice,
  Without summons or call,
And 'tis foolish to love him
  Or like him at all."

"Nay, rather do thou
  To God pray above,
Lest Pedro return,
  And again you should love,"

Said Miguella, in jest,
  As she answered poor Jane,
"For when love has been bought
  At cost of such pain,

"What hope is there, sister,
  Unless the soul part,
That the passion you cherish
  Should yield up your heart?

"Your years will increase,
  But so will your pains,
And this you may learn
  From the proverb's old strains:

"'If when but a child
  Love's power you own,
Pray what will you do
  When you older are grown?'"

Passing over the other two divisions, into which the first period of Spanish literature resolves itself, viz., the Chronicles, or exaggerated histories of the achievements and heroes of the country, and the Drama, then forming upon a religious basis, we come to those most extraordinary productions, which, in the early period of many European nations, and in none in so high a degree as in Spain, exercised a wide and deep influence upon the popular mind, and exhibited themselves in so many various and grotesque forms—the *Romances of Chivalry*. They belong to an age when arms were the pursuit of every gentleman, and infused their spirit into all ranks—even the lowest—of society. Accustomed, as the common people were, to hear—recorded in the most popular of all literature, the ballads—the achievements of their favorite heroes; and the knights and gentry to gather from the Chronicles the more sober and systematic, yet, in many respects, equally fictitious and exaggerated, accounts of the same persons and events; it was not remarkable that a style of composition should be demanded and come into vogue, intermediate between the two, and devoted to a similar class of subjects, but resting wholly upon a fictitious basis. It is to this period that we trace the origin of modern romance writing, which has, in all countries, become a powerful agency in determining society and manners, and to which ancient history furnishes no counterpart. If the Romances of Chivalry seem to us a preposterous and absurd creation, we are not the less to accord to many of them a high degree of literary merit and a controlling influence upon manners and institutions, for several hundred years, down almost to the period when Cervantes, in the adventures of Don Quixote, waged his relentless and exterminating warfare. Ridiculous as they were, the evidences are too strong to be resisted, that, not only among the common people, but even in the higher ranks of society, these fictions were received and believed as *faithful* and *true* records of the achievements of *actual* knights and heroes, who had made the world famous by their high and chivalrous deeds; and the minds of men were prepared for so extraordinary credulity, by the Chronicles, which pretended to historical accuracy, and the course of the mother church and its cunning priests, who demanded an unquestioning faith in the silliest and most ridiculous supernatural interventions and miracles, upon almost every day in the calendar.

France would seem to have given origin to this style of fiction, though the growth which it afterward took upon the soil of Spain was infinitely more luxurious and flourishing. As early as the twelfth century, the French were acquainted with "Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table," and "Charlemagne and his Peers," introduced from

Brittany into Normandy. These and other old fictions furnished the material out of which were elaborated the wild creations of Ariosto, Spenser, Wieland, etc. It was not until the middle of the fifteenth century, that we trace their existence in Spain. The first in rank, in merit and influence, and the head of a long and almost interminable series, is the world-famous fiction of "*Amadis* of *Gaul*," which was a translation from the Portuguese. It ran immediately through many editions in the French, Italian and Spanish languages, and was received with an enthusiasm which has never been surpassed. The events of the book carry us back to the Christian era, and illustrate a pattern of knighthood, "perfect in courage and in chastity." Amadis is an imaginary character and son of the king of Gaula. His birth is illegitimate, and he is found upon the sea and carried to England and Scotland. He falls in love with Oriana, the daughter of the English king. His legitimate brother is Galaor, the son of the king of Gaula, who has married Elisena, the mother of Amadis. "The adventures of these two knights (natural brothers), partly in England, France, Germany and Turkey, and partly in unknown regions and amidst enchantments—sometimes under favor of their ladies, and sometimes, as in the hermitage of the Firm Island, under their frowns—fill up the book, which, after the broad journeyings of the principal knights, and incredible numbers of combats between them and other knights, magicians and giants, ends at last in the marriage of Amadis and Oriana, and the overthrow of all the enchantments that had so long opposed their love."

The *Amadis de Gaul* was followed by the stories of "Esplandian," "The History of Florisando," "Lisuarte of Greece," "The most Wonderful Amadis of Greece," "Don Florisel de Ninquea," "Anaxartes, Son of Lisuarte," "Don Silves de la Selva," "Leandro the Fair," and "The Roman des Romans," which was a kind of digest of all the preceding, etc. "The Palmerin de Oliva" and the "Palmerin of England" belong also to the same class, and the latter is said to be inferior only to Amadis de Gaul, of which it will be remembered that Cervantes makes the barber and the curate thus discourse in Don Quixote:

"'There is something mysterious about this matter,' said the curate; 'for, as I have heard, this was the first book of knight-errantry that was printed in Spain, and all the others have had their origin and source here; so that, as the arch-heretic of so mischievous a sect, I think he should, without a hearing, be condemned to the fire.' 'No, sir,' said the barber; 'for I too have heard that it is the best of all the books of its kind that have been written, and, therefore, for its singularity, it ought to be forgiven.' 'That is the truth,' answered the curate, 'and so let us spare it for the present.'"*

Our space will not permit any notice of the origin and progress of the courtly school, in the first period of Spanish literature, terminating with the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella. For nearly four centuries, the national spirit had advanced and produced results in civilization, refinement and letters, far beyond what could be furnished in the history of cotemporary nations. We witness the "first efforts of a generous people to emancipate themselves from the cold restraints of a merely material existence, and watch, with confidence and sympathy, the movement of their secret feelings and prevalent energies, as they are struggling upward into the poetry of a native and earnest enthusiasm, persuaded that they must at last work out for themselves a literature bold, fervent and original, marked with the features and impulses of the national character, and able to vindicate for itself a place among the permanent monuments of modern civilization." This brilliant prospect, unfortunately, was destined too soon to be blasted by the introduction—through the growing intolerance and bigotry of the times, sustained by the authority of Ferdinand and Isabella themselves—of the *Inquisition*, which had been so formidable an engine against the Albigenses in Provence. The dark, terrible and noiseless machinery of this accursed tribunal, carrying dismay and death into the ranks of Moors and Jews, was soon brought to bear upon all classes of society, and, with the progress of the Reformation, crushed, in Spain, the very life and soul of all that was bright or glorious in her rising civilization.

The two centuries which followed witnessed the growth of Spanish military glory, in the new and wider arena of foreign conquest and empire. Charles the Fifth marched steadily forward, extending the dominions of Spain over the greater part of the world, and creating a realm for Philip the Second, upon which, it was exultingly said, the sun never set. The Reformation, which, in every other country, was producing convulsions which shook the very foundations of society, could find no admission into Spain. There the Inquisition, with the most perfect organization, anticipated its approaches. A papal bull authorized Charles V to have prepared a list of books pertaining to Protestantism, dangerous to be read in his dominion, and the penalty of death was decreed by Philip II upon whoever should keep, buy or sell, any book included within the list known as the *Index Expurgatorius* of the Inquisition. What was now a war against Protestantism came soon to be one upon letters. The first scholars of the age, in every branch of learning, were made amenable to this tribunal, and a censorship of the press was established, more stringent and degrading than history has ever recorded before or since. The marks of this subserviency cannot but be distinctly recognized in the pages of every author, and in the total absense of that spirit of freedom and boldness so indispensably necessary to all literary excellence.

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* Among the other fictions, of the same stamp with Amadis, are "Belianis of Greece," "Olivante de Laura," "Felixmarte of Hircania," "The Renowned Knight Cifar," "The Bold Knight of Claribalte," "The Invincible Knight Lepolemo," "Romance of Merlin," "Tristan de Leonnais," "The Holy Cup," "Reynoldos de Montalban," "Cleomadez," "Cestial Chivalry," "Knight of the Bright Star," and "The Christian Knight, the Conqueror of Heaven." Many of these last were of a religious character, and full of wild and exaggerated lives of the saints and martyrs, and cunningly devised fables, to increase the power and influence of the priesthood, who could not allow so powerful a medium of influencing the masses to be monopolized by knight-errantry and arms. The reader will remember the amusing account which Cervantes gives of Don Quixote's library.

The more frequent intercourse which was now springing up with Italy introduced into Spain a character of composition and a class of writers who are designated as of the *Italian School.* The first of these was *Boscan*, whose friend, *Garcilasso de la Vega*, is said to have carried the best forms of Italian verse to a height they never afterward reached in Spanish poetry. This young man, after a brilliant life in the field, and after many heroic achievements, died at the early age of thirty-three, leaving behind him a volume of poems. Among the other writers of this school, were *Acuna*, *Antonio de Villegas*, *Gregorio Silvestre and Diego Mendoza*, the last of whom combined a life of military adventure with one of high literary effort and scholarship.

The discovery of America produced an order of historical writings in Spain, which is worthy of our attention. The *Relaciones* of Hernando Cortez, which were the elaborate reports of that commander of whatever he saw and did in the New World, are among the first. He was succeeded by Francisco Lopez de Gomara, who sketched the adventures of Cortez, and contributed a *History of the Indies.* The mistakes of this writer, who followed Cortez implicitly, and was his secretary, were corrected by Bernal Diaz. Gonzalo Fernandes de Oveido published, in 1535, the *Natural and General History of the Indies*, in fifty books, followed, in 1561, by the great work of Las Casas upon the same subject. Nunez de Vaca's account of his *Shipwreck and Captivity in Florida*, the *Conquest of Peru*, by Xerez, and the similar work by Carate, belong also to this era. The Smithsonian Institute, it is understood, intend the publication of a complete index of all the early works, in every language, relating to the discovery and colonization of America.

The remainder of what we have time to say upon the second division of Spanish literary history, will be included in a notice of Miguel Cervantes and the editions fo Don Quixote, Lope de Vega, Calderon, Spanish proverbs, and the decay of Spanish character.

MIGUEL DE CERVANTES SAAVEDRA, though of poor and humble parentage, belonged yet to a family which claimed a long line of noble ancestry, often distinguished in the service of their country. He tells us that poetry and the drama were his passion at the earliest age, and that his reading extended through everything down to the mutilated scraps of paper he picked up in the streets. At twenty-three, he served as chamberlain to the Spanish minister, at the Court of Rome, but left the post immediately after and joined, as a foot soldier, the armament under Don John of Austria, against the Turks, under the conviction, it would seem, "that none make better soldiers than those who are transplanted from the region of letters to the fields of war, and that never scholar became a soldier that was not a good and a brave one." During five years his service was of the most eventful and brilliant character; and, in the famous fight of Lepanto, which arrested the progress of the Turks, he received several wounds, and lost the use of one of his arms for life. Returning from these wars, he was carried into slavery by the Algerines, who found him no submissive or tractable subject, judging from his numerous conspiracies and rebellions, and the remark of the old Dey, "If he could but keep that lame Spaniard well guarded, he should consider his capital, his slaves and his galleys, safe." Ransomed at last, his love of military excitement and glory led him into the Portuguese wars, waged by Philip the second. From this period begins that literary career which has placed him at the head of his countrymen, and which, no doubt, for centuries to come, will win the applause and fame of the civilized world. His first production, *The Galatea*, a pastoral romance, was never finished; its object, the favor of his lady-love, having been, it is said, accomplished in the mean while. When the barbar and the curate are searching Don Quixote's library, they light upon this volume, "But what book is the next one?" said the curate. "The Galatea, of Miguel de Cervantes," replied the barber. "This Cervantes," said the curate, "has been a great friend of mine these many years, and I know that he is more skilled in sorrows than in verse. His book is not without happiness in the invention; it proposes something, but finishes nothing. So we must wait for the second part," &c. The book was, of course, spared. The Galatea was followed by several plays, possessing more or less of merit, but not so successful as to rescue the author from poverty and suffering. He removed to Seville, and filled, for many years, an humble office connected with the revenues, and, being a defaulter in a petty sum, was imprisoned. He besought the king, to no purpose, for an appointment in America. There is a tradition of his being afterward employed to collect monastic rents, in La Mancha, where the angry debtors threw him into prison—within whose walls, to avenge himself, he began to write Don Quixote, and gave him a nativity in La Mancha. He admits, himself, that it was begun in prison, without saying where. His residence, a few years later, at Valladolid, marked by an account, in his own hand-writing, of sewing work done by his sister, and his imprisonment as a witness, evince no improvement in his wretched fortunes. In 1604, Don Quixote was licensed at Valladolid, and published the next year in Madrid. In 1609, he joined the brotherhood of the Holy Sacrament, a religious order which men of letters affected, for the ease and retirement it afforded. Among the brothers was Lope de Vega, a name as famous in Spain as that of Cervantes, but the relationship of the two seemed ever to have been marked with some reserve, attributed, by many, to envy of each other's fame and reputation. The other works of Cervantes, are his "Moral Tales" (Novelas Exemplares), his "Journey to Parnassus," a poem of little merit, and several comedies and plays of no very high reputation or success. In 1615, he published the *second part* of Don Quixote, and, the year after, concluded "Persilles & Sisgumunda," the preface of which concludes—"Farewell to jesting, farewell my merry humors, farewell my gay friends, for I feel that I am dying." This was the last act of a man fast verging upon seventy years.

The mission of Don Quixote was to exterminate from the world the wild fictions of chivalry, which, from the lowest to the highest classes of society, were universally read and credited, and which had become such a public nuisance, as to be prohibited in the colonies, and, in the opinion of the *Cortes*, to deserve to be burnt in every part of Spain. Cervantes himself evinces how closely and deeply he had studied these books; but his own inimitable satire of the *Ingenious Knight of La Mancha* made an end to them forever, by its exterminating warfare. A solitary instance, says Mr. Ticknor, of the power of genius, to destroy, by a single well-timed blow, an entire department, and that a favored and flourishing one, in the literature of a great and proud nation.

Between the appearance of the first and second part of Don Quixote, a period of many years, a Dominican monk, stealing the thunder of Cervantes, had the affrontery to publish what he called the second part of Don Quixote. This brought down upon his devoted head the bitter ire and denunciation of Cervantes, who pursues him, throughout the genuine *second part*, with relentless indignation, contumely and rage. "A pretty kind of a history writer, cried Sancho, and a deal must he known of our affairs, if be calls Teresa Pansa, my wife, Mary Gutierrez. Take the book again, sir, and see if I am put into it, and if he has changed my name, too." "Well, heaven forgive him, said Sancho, but I think he might have left me in my corner without troubling himself about me, for—Let him play that knows the way, and Saint Peter at Rome is well off at home."

The second part of Don Quixote possesses even higher merit than the first, and both the characters (of the knight and Sancho) assume a new and more elevated rank. Here the squire appears in the new position of governor of Barataria, and pours forth his interminable volley of proverbs, in spite of the entreaties, and to the no small annoyance, of his master. The whole work is, however, marked with many inconsistencies, and much confusion as to dates, events, &c., as, for instance, "it began to draw toward evening," said of a party who had been carousing at supper; Sancho's wife is called by different names, and Sancho is found riding on the ass, which, but the day before, Gines de Pasamonte had stolen, &c. Over all these errors, after some attempts to correct, the author "laughed heartily at last, as things of little consequence to himself, or to anybody else."

Lope De Vega, who was a cotemporary of Cervantes, as previously remarked, was also, like him, seduced, at an early period, into the military profession—attaching himself, in despair of winning the hand of a fair dame, to the "Invincible Armada," then fitting out for the overthrow of English Protestantism, and using up, as he tells us, for wadding, the verses he had written in her praise. At a subsequent period he takes holy orders, and, as an officer of the Inquisition, shared an active part in the burning of a Franciscan monk for heresy. The same spirit of intolerance is observed in his *Dragantea*, where Queen Elizabeth is termed the "scarlet lady of Babylon," a spirit, by the way, characteristic of the age, as we see in the little ballad:

"And Baxtolo, my brother,
  To England forth has gone,
Where the Drake [Sir Francis] he means to kill.
  And the Lutherans, every one,
Excommunicate from God;
  Their queen, among the first,
He will capture, and bring back
  Like heretics accurst.
And he promises, moreover,
  Among his spoils and gains,
A heretic young serving boy
  To give me, bound in chains.
And, for my lady grand-mamma,
  Whose years such waiting crave,
A handy little Lutheran,
  To be her maiden slave."

This extraordinary man, like Pope, may be said to have "lisped first in poetry;" for, at five years of age, and before he had learned to write, he dictated verses to his school fellows, and could read Latin as well as Spanish. For forty or fifty years he occupied the first rank among the authors of Spain, and, indeed, of the world; and his comedies and plays, of which the number was almost without limit, were performed in France, in Italy—at Rome and Constantinople. No man ever lived who exercised, for so long a period, an influence, apparently illimitable; and ever afterward, whatever was most distinguished in Spain for excellence in letters, art or nature, was, and is now, characterized, in compliment to him, "*a* Lope." Of the plays which he wrote, but a fourth part were published, which appear in twenty-eight volumes. His friend, Montalvan, fixed the whole number at *eighteen hundred plays and four hundred autos*, and the rapidity with which they flew from under his pen was so wonderful, that, he tells us, of one of them, it was written and acted in five days; and, Montalvan adds, that, in fifteen days, five full length dramas were written by him in Toledo, and the first act of another, without an apparent effort! With all his prodigious successes in the various fields of literature, and the immense sums realized thereby, his habits of extravagance and expense were of so boundless a nature that he was always poor, and died, at last, leaving a penniless daughter. No higher tribute could have been paid to this literary colossus, than that of Cervantes, who spoke of him as "that great prodigy of nature, Lope de Vega, who has raised himself to the monarchy of the theater, subjected it to his control, and placed its actors under his jurisdiction; filled the world with his plays, and, if any persons have desired to enter into competition and share the glory of his labors, all they have done, when put together, would not equal the half of what has been done by him alone!"

The next name in Spanish dramatic literature, is that of PEDRO CALDERON, the successor and rival of De Vega, and the head of a dramatic school. For half a century he continued to wield an extensive empire over the hearts of his countrymen; and the whole length of his reign, and that of his distinguished competitor for the glory of the Spanish stage, reached an extent of ninety years! A catalogue of his dramatic works, in his own hand, shows one hundred and eighty-one full length dramas and sacramental autos, a part of which only have been found.

The PROBVERBS of Spain, to which Sancho Panza gave so much celebrity, and which Don Quixote entitles "short sentences drawn from long experience," have grown to a degree of luxuriance which no other language has equalled. The first collection of them was made by the Marquis of Santillana, in 1508; and, forty years afterward, Valles published an alphabetical series of 4,300 of them. Another collection, by Hernan Nunez, reached 6,000. There have been various other collections, the one by Val de Penas, being illustrated by the corresponding Latin adages—and that of Juan de Yriarte, published about 1750, embraces 24,000 of these didactic fragments!

The close of the seventeenth century saw Spain exhausted, by the long-continued wars which had been waged; by the banishment of more than half a million of her inhabitants, who, being descendants of Moors, though conforming outwardly to Christianity, were yet believed by the bigoted monarch to be infidels at heart; by the corruptions which followed the introduction of American gold; by the fearful workings of the Inquisition, and the general servility and blind loyalty of all classes, to a race of weak and imbecile monarchs, closing with Charles II, but descending, in a direct line, from all that was high and noble in the great house of Austria. With the decay of the national spirit, industry and manners, in equal footsteps, the national literature may be said to have decayed and died.

Our paper has grown too rapidly upon us to admit of more than a passing notice of the *third and last period of Spanish history*, embraced in the volumes of Mr. Ticknor, and ending with the restoration to the throne of Ferdinand the Seventh, through British intervention, which event occurred in 1813. There is so little to cheer us in all this period, or to excite our admiration, as in the ages that have gone by and over which we have hung, for many an hour, in breathless interest and delight, that we are less disposed to regret the omission. Has the glory of Spain, indeed, departed forever? We quote from the concluding pages of the history before us:

> "But, whether a great advancement may soon be hoped for or not, one thing is certain. The law of progress is on Spain, for good or for evil, as it is on the other nations of the earth; and her destiny, like theirs, is in the hand of God, and will be fulfilled. The material resources of her soil and position are as great as those of any people that now occupies its meted portion of the globe. The mass of her inhabitants, and especially of her peasantry, has been less changed, and, in many respects, less corrupted, by the revolutions of the last century, than any other nation that has pressed her borders, or contended with her power. They are the same race of men who twice drove back the crescent from the shores of Europe, and twice saved, from shipwreck, the great cause of Christian civilization. They have shown the same spirit, at Saragossa, that they showed, two thousand years before, at Saguntum. They are not a ruined people. And, while they preserve the sense of honor, the sincerity and the contempt for what is sordid and base, that have so long distinguished their national character, they cannot be ruined.
>
> Nor, I trust, will such a people—still proud and faithful in its less favored masses, if not in those portions whose names dimly shadow forth the glory they have inherited—fail to create a literature appropriate to a character, in itself, so poetical. The old ballads will not,

indeed, return, for the feelings that produced them are with by-gone things. The old drama will not be revived; society, even in Spain, would not now endure its excesses. The old chroniclers themselves, if they should come back, would find no miracles of valor or superstition to record, and no credulity fond enough to believe them. Their poets will not again be monks and soldiers, as they were in the days when the influences of the old religious wars and hatreds gave both their brightest and darkest colors to the elements of social life; for the civilization that struck its roots into that soil, has died out for want of nourishment. But the Spanish people—that old Castilian race, that came from the mountains and filled the whole land with their spirit—have, I trust, a future before them, not unworthy of their ancient fortunes and fame; a future full of materials for a generous history, and a poetry still more generous; happy, if they have been taught, by the experience of the past, that, while reverence for whatever is noble and worthy is of the essence of poetical inspiration, and, while religious faith and feeling constitute its true and sure foundations, there is yet a loyalty to mere rank and place, which degrades alike its possessor and him it would honor, and a blind submission to priestly authority, which narrows and debases the nobler faculties of the soul more than any other, because it sends its poison deeper. But, if they have failed to learn this solemn lesson, inscribed everywhere, as by the hand of Heaven, on the crumbling walls of their ancient institutions, then is their honorable history, both in civilization and letters, closed forever."

ART. X.—POPULATION.—Part 3.

ANALYSIS OF THE CENSUS OF 1830 OF THE U. STATES.

The census of 1830 was far more minute than any of the preceding. It changed the time of enumeration to the first of June, thus cutting off two months from the decennial period. The number of divisions, of every class of population, is also greatly enlarged. Blanks for idiots, deaf, dumb and blind, are added.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, JUNE 1, 1830.

STATES.	FREE WHITE MALES.					
	Under five.	*Five and under ten.*	*Ten and under fifteen.*	*Fifteen and under twenty.*	*Twenty and under thirty.*	*Thirty and under forty.*
Maine,	34,053	28,742	25,522	22,400	34,895	21,701
New Hampshire,	19,428	17,521	16,737	14,847	21,191	14,696
Massachusetts,	40,644	35,988	34,679	32,801	58,621	35,433
Rhode Island,	6,733	5,786	5,400	5,354	8,425	5,379
Connecticut,	19,033	17,891	17,788	16,509	26,166	16,608
Vermont,	21,700	19,406	17,597	15,782	24,207	15,773

New York,	158,077	137,071	118,523	101,712	176,754	113,136
New Jersey,	25,071	21,204	19,745	17,123	27,001	17,231
Pennsylvania,	117,853	96,199	82,375	73,113	121,359	75,172
Delaware,	4,744	4,099	3,919	3,184	5,508	3,206
Maryland,	23,737	19,438	17,886	15,778	29,397	18,215
Virginia,	65,793	51,805	43.287	36,947	60,911	36,539
North Carolina,	46,749	35,950	30,527	25,452	39,428	23,042
South Carolina,	25,132	20,259	16,497	13,961	22,164	13,969
Georgia,	33,027	23.709	18,584	15,186	26,844	16,156
Alabama,	22,764	15,482	12,129	9,509	17,440	11,390
Mississippi,	7,918	5,572	4.591	3,623	7,237	4,633
Louisiana,	7,968	6,402	5,134	4,325	10,458	7,777
Tennessee,	59,576	45,366	36,044	29,247	44,982	25,111
Kentucky,	54,116	41,073	34,222	29,017	45,913	26,290
Ohio,	96,411	74,690	62,151	51,138	81,290	49,346
Indiana,	39,780	28,692	22,872	17,653	28,153	17,904
Illinois,	18,834	12,753	10,024	7,770	14,706	8,835
Missouri,	13,531	9,617	7,469	5,639	11,147	7,084
Michigan territory,	3,023	2,326	1,905	1,543	4,389	2,739
Arkansas territory,	3,020	2,021	1,626	1,272	2,835	1,830
Florida territory,	1,932	1,333	1,015	789	2,171	1,536
District of Columbia,	2,333	1,680	1,486	1,522	2,805	1,817
Total,	972,980	782,075	669,734	573,196	956,487	592,535

FREE WHITE FEMALES.

Maine,	32,471	27,676	24,067	22,348	35,596	22,250
New Hampshire,	18,538	16,790	15,525	14,823	24,564	16,690
Massachusetts,	39,533	34,537	33,326	34,439	60,495	38,163
Rhode Island,	6,623	5,642	5,213	5,584	9,203	5,756
Connecticut,	18,270	16,943	16,575	15,978	26,540	17,987
Vermont,	21,334	18,632	16,870	15,753	25.180	16,264
New York,	151,808	133,084	115,166	105.196	168,897	104,522
New Jersey,	23,937	20,479	18,267	16,784	25,617	16,628
Pennsylvania,	111.947	92,719	80,087	75,976	115,898	69,604
Delaware,	4,647	4,011	3,654	3,381	5,484	3,179
Maryland,	22,356	18,693	17,327	18,020	27,248	16,617
Virginia,	62,411	49,964	41,936	40,479	62,044	36,456
North Carolina,	43,775	34,264	28,842	27,398	41,636	24,584
South Carolina,	23.691	19,043	15,632	15,122	21.866	13,438
Georgia,	30,958	22,590	17,988	16,452	24,036	13,974
Alabama,	21,340	14,801	11,092	9,951	14,457	8,559
Mississippi,	7,319	5,165	4,169	3,653	5,231	3,090
Louisiana,	7,800	6,193	5,140	4,709	6,930	4,304
Tennessee,	55,399	42,975	33,556	30,616	42,970	23,545
Kentucky,	50,835	39,439	32,197	29,623	41,936	23,469
Ohio,	89,873	71.851	59,306	52,635	75,574	43,894
Indiana,	37,505	27.313	21,072	18,087	26,702	15,763
Illinois,	17,429	12,000	9,246	8,053	12,461	6,850
Missouri,	12,561	9,077	6,794	5,765	8,791	5,121
Michigan territory,	2,743	2,066	1,686	1,438	2,540	1,390
Arkansas territory,	2,782	1,897	1,494	1,225	2,012	1,067
Florida territory,	1,807	1,251	981	923	1,447	848
District of Columbia,	2,182	1,646	1,648	1,843	2,856	1,752
Total,	921,934	750,741	638,856	596,254	918,411	555,581

FREE WHITE MALES.

STATES.	Forty and under fifty.	Fifty and under sixty.	Sixty and under seventy.	Seventy and under eighty.	Eighty and under ninety.	Ninety and under one hundred.	One hundred and upward.
Maine,	14,547	9,228	5,956	2,637	823	93	2
New Hampshire,	10,772	7,218	5,059	2,786	840	85	4
Massachusett,	23,683	15,008	10,319	5,575	1,760	173	1
Rhode Island,	3,512	2,157	1,444	854	261	28	...
Connecticut,	11,595	7,851	5,495	3,154	871	81	5
Vermont,	10,405	7,051	5,203	2,203	618	48	3
New York,	68,871	40,503	23,909	10,034	2,561	255	35
New Jersey,	11,043	7,063	4,456	2,021	534	44	1

Pennsylvania,	46,600	28,032	16,085	6,979	1,775	228	42
Delaware,	2,036	1,286	609	202	43	9	...
Maryland,	11,072	6,565	3,462	1,375	355	53	7
Virginia,	23,381	15,261	8,971	3,674	1,108	184	26
North Carolina,	14,998	10,536	5,968	2,489	649	138	28
South Carolina,	8,334	5,644	3,042	1,210	298	66	14
Georgia,	9,542	5,674	3,083	1,120	290	63	10
Alabama,	6,029	3,593	1,741	591	147	19	3
Mississippi,	2,419	1,595	632	189	47	11	...
Louisiana,	4,304	2,023	896	317	78	24	9
Tennessee,	15,108	11,188	5.543	2,107	657	105	32
Kentucky,	15,966	10,843	6,253	2,585	699	119	28
Ohio,	31,112	18,058	10,783	3,632	935	138	29
Indiana,	10,306	6,004	3,160	1,059	240	49	13
Illinois,	4,627	2,853	1,172	384	90	6	4
Missouri,	3,642	1,939	927	334	60	14	2
Michigan territory,	1,232	658	264	64	20	4	1
Arkansas territory,	876	434	209	69	12	1	...
Florida territory,	760	436	194	57	10	2	1
District of Columbia,	1,068	593	245	71	25	1	1
Total,	367,840	229,284	135,082	57,772	15,806	2,041	301

FREE WHITE FEMALES.

Maine,	14,183	9,330	5,904	2,688	911	138	3
New Hampshire,	11,896	8,448	5,888	3,110	1,085	174	6
Massachusetts,	26,684	18,456	12,989	7,173	2,528	347	4
Rhode Island,	4,024	2,826	1,939	1,058	376	44	...
Connecticut,	13,214	9,245	6,707	3,760	1,228	156	3
Vermont,	11,034	7,152	4,727	2,086	652	87	4
New York,	64,315	38,344	22,589	9,645	2,673	304	17
New Jersey,	11,007	7,307	4,705	2,160	586	63	2
Pennsylvania,	44,485	27,882	16,221	7,084	1,929	235	21
Delaware,	2,047	1,397	630	263	56	6	1
Maryland,	10,840	6,983	3,633	1,541	432	64	14
Virginia,	23,750	15,447	8,765	3,847	1,098	188	28
North Carolina,	16,428	10,601	5,980	2,496	747	158	30
South Carolina,	8,468	5,455	2,929	1,181	351	80	17
Georgia,	8,427	5,089	2,664	987	268	65	20
Alabama,	4,695	2,731	1,319	432	144	29	10
Mississippi,	1,739	983	436	149	34	7	2
Louisiana,	2,319	1,257	660	222	73	17	1
Tennessee,	15,264	9,279	4,541	1,855	542	110	28
Kentucky,	15,476	9,499	5,315	2,195	575	97	14
Ohio,	27,546	15,898	8,293	2,915	736	89	6
Indiana,	9,028	4,808	2,275	780	212	25	4
Illinois,	3,750	2,047	812	273	77	14	1
Missouri,	2,718	1,499	766	227	60	9	2
Michigan territory,	726	390	140	35	10	5	...
Arkansas territory,	528	301	107	31	9	3	...
Florida territory,	484	247	101	45	10	5	...
District of Columbia,	980	603	272	98	32	4	...
Total,	356,046	223,504	131,307	58,336	17,434	2,523	238

	FREE COLORED MALES.					
STATES.	*Under ten years.*	*Ten and under twenty-four.*	*Twenty-four & under thirty-six.*	*Thirty-six and under fifty-five.*	*Fifty-five & under one hundred.*	*One hundred and upward.*
Maine,	163	172	111	108	54	2
New Hampshire,	67	78	53	44	32	1
Massachusetts,	806	887	718	629	314	4
Rhode Island,	337	501	317	238	152	3
Connecticut,	1,019	1,121	771	624	313	2
Vermont,	121	116	78	60	48	3
New York,	5,643	6,094	3,860	4,492	1,358	19
New Jersey,	3,033	3,234	1,458	1,196	573	7
Pennlysvania,	5,095	5,250	4,069	2,796	1,132	35
Delaware,	2,627	2,259	1,303	1,180	503	10
Maryland,	8,309	6,099	4,020	4,142	2,287	49
Virginia,	8,236	6,126	3,546	2,721	1,731	27
North Carolina,	3,438	2,955	1,400	1,062	685	21
South Carolina,	1,314	958	622	424	335	19

Georgia,	368	853	224	186	118	12
Alabama,	275	202	187	124	56	...
Mississippi,	81	82	59	43	22	1
Louisiana,	2,503	2,296	1,208	828	884	11
Tennessee,	842	583	361	321	216	7
Kentucky,	764	584	410	484	402	8
Ohio,	1,562	1,440	808	646	325	8
Indiana,	617	544	307	240	188	11
Illinois,	277	251	136	119	40	1
Missouri,	87	76	43	57	18	3
Michigan territory,	31	43	48	29	8	...
Arkansas territory,	27	17	23	17	3	1
Florida territory,	138	109	46	56	33	1
District of Columbia,	895	649	464	405	229	3
Total,	48,675	43,079	27,650	22,271	11,509	269

FREE COLORED FEMALES.

Maine,	143	175	117	93	52	...
New Hampshire,	68	97	54	63	45	2
Massachusetts,	812	967	815	661	396	39
Rhode Island,	355	597	443	350	265	3
Connecticut,	1,051	1,233	819	667	417	10
Vermont,	121	131	73	71	57	2
New York,	5,509	6,843	5,504	3,780	1,714	54
New Jersey,	2,811	2,890	1,428	1,118	554	6
Pennsylvania,	5,054	6,142	4,476	2,742	1,105	34
Delaware,	2,524	2,359	1,446	1,102	526	16
Maryland,	7,912	7,313	5,389	4,535	2,796	87
Virginia,	8,002	7,031	4,501	3,379	2,024	24
North Carolina,	3,287	3,118	1,649	1,179	720	29
South Carolina,	1,378	1,175	746	545	399	6
Georgia,	347	330	231	185	126	6
Alabama,	245	209	131	84	56	3
Mississippi,	72	51	45	49	14	...
Louisiana,	2,640	2,727	1,927	1,402	755	29
Tennessee,	772	616	359	285	187	6
Kentucky,	633	505	351	398	369	9
Ohio,	1,573	1,551	799	611	241	4
Indiana,	594	573	279	215	107	4
Illinois,	305	225	125	106	50	2
Missouri	77	62	46	63	34	3
Michigan territory,	20	36	26	16	4	...
Arkansas territory,	17	13	10	7	6	...
Florida territory,	144	136	70	62	48	1
District of Columbia,	863	1,033	682	564	358	7
Total,	47,329	48,138	32,541	24,327	13,425	386

MALE SLAVES.

Maine,	......	......	......	......	......	...
New Hampshire,	......	......	......	......	......	...
Massachusetts,	......	......	......	......	......	...
Rhode Island,	......	2	......	......	1	...
Connecticut,	1	2	......	1	4	...
Vermont,	......	......	......	......	......	...
New York,	5	6	......	1	......	1
New Jersey,	5	12	395	383	261	3
Pennsylvania,	23	102	25	11	10	1
Delaware,	580	853	245	83	42	3
Maryland,	17,880	17,759	8,846	6,135	2,772	50
Virginia,	84,000	68,917	43,189	30,683	12,155	133
North Carolina,	45,991	38,099	20,212	14,030	5,848	133
South Carolina,	51,820	44,600	29,710	21,674	7,567	98
Georgia,	38,367	34,253	19.440	12,818	3,847	92
Alabama,	21,837	19,553	11,100	5,158	1,495	27
Mississippi,	11,037	10,793	6,947	3,445	845	22
Louisiana,	13,627	17,926	15,784	8,443	2,069	42
Tennessee,	27,713	23,431	11,260	6,020	1,729	63
Kentucky,	31,500	27,449	13,520	7,499	2,280	61
Ohio,	......	1	......	......	......	...
Indiana,	......	......	......	......	......	...
Illinois,	98	118	76	47	6	2
Missouri,	4,872	4,364	2,058	923	208	14
Michigan territory,	2	7	11	1	1	...
Arkansas territory,	845	814	395	192	47	...
Florida territory,	2,501	2,482	1,830	948	224	...
District of Columbia,	794	1,024	542	375	114	3
Total,	353,498	312,567	186,585	118,880	41,545	748

STATES.	FEMALE SLAVES. Under ten years.	Ten and under twenty-four.	Twenty-four & under thirty-six.	Thirty-six and under fifty-five.	Fifty-five & under one hundred.	One hundred and upward.	Total population.
Maine,	......	......	1	......	1	...	399,455
New Hampshire,	......	......	2	1	......	...	269,328
Massachusetts,	......	......	......	......	......	1	610,408
Rhode Island,	......	4	1	1	8	...	97,199
Connecticut,	1	3	......	4	9	...	297,675
Vermont,	......	......	......	......	......	...	280,652
New York,	23	12	17	3	6	1	1,913,006
New Jersey,	8	20	424	451	288	4	320,823
Pennsylvania,	32	106	22	25	42	4	1,348,233
Delaware,	508	617	230	80	49	2	76,748
Maryland,	17,002	16,236	8,331	5,329	2,601	53	447,040
Virginia,	83,207	66,921	40,927	27,206	12,275	144	1,211,405
North Carolina,	44,847	37,508	20,095	13,088	5,636	114	737,987
South Carolina,	51,524	45,517	32,689	22,006	8,112	84	581,185
Georgia,	38,102	33,917	20,527	12,325	3,765	78	516,823
Alabama,	21,386	19,669	11,088	4,808	1,312	26	309,527
Mississippi,	10,860	10,840	6,983	3,173	682	21	136,621
Louisiana,	13,687	16,613	13,534	6,249	1,552	42	215,529
Tennessee,	26,568	24,145	12,223	6,519	1,891	41	681,904
Kentucky,	30,975	27,346	13,854	8,107	2,672	50	687,917
Ohio,	......	2	3	......	......	...	937,903
Indiana,	......	2	......	1	......	...	343,031
Illinois,	144	128	61	52	12	3	157,445
Missouri,	4,611	4,605	2,199	1,014	219	4	140,455
Michigan territory,	1	3	3	3	......	...	31,639
Arkansas territory,	803	836	399	193	51	1	30,388
Florida territory,	2,560	2,449	1,561	768	177	1	34,730
District of Columbia,	816	1,270	612	391	176	2	39,834
Total,	347,665	308,770	185,786	111,887	41,436	676	12,854,890
Add for number of seamen in the United States service, aliens, &c., as per notes to fifth census,							11,130
Grand total of the United States,							12,866,020

STATES.	WHITE PERSONS (included in the foregoing). Who are deaf and dumb, under fourteen years of age.	Who are deaf and dumb, of the age of fourteen and under twenty-five.	Who are deaf and dumb, of the age of twenty-five and upward.	Who are blind.	Aliens — foreigners not naturalised.	SLAVES AND COLORED (included in the foregoing). Who are deaf and dumb, under fourteen years of age.	Who are deaf and dumb, of the age of fourteen and under twenty-five.	Who are deaf and dumb, of the age of twenty-five and upward.	Who are blind.
Maine,	64	60	56	159	3,526	4	...	1	1
New Hampshire,	32	55	48	105	410	5	1	3	...
Massachusetts,	56	62	138	218	8,787	2	3	4	5
Rhode Island,	6	22	28	56	1,100	2	2	...	8
Connecticut,	43	152	99	188	1,481	4	2	...	7
Vermont,	39	59	55	51	3,364	3	...	2	...
New York,	277	310	255	642	52,488	17	14	12	82
New Jersey,	64	71	72	205	3,365	5	2	8	22
Pennsylvania,	224	279	255	475	15,376	12	12	15	28
Delaware,	6	15	14	18	313	...	5	4	11
Maryland,	50	31	54	147	4,786	40	30	26	124
Virginia,	132	118	169	355	789	51	41	38	438
North Carolina,	70	81	79	223	202	31	27	25	161
South Carolina,	60	52	62	102	486	9	27	33	136
Georgia,	50	51	44	150	101	26	21	12	123
Alabama,	45	25	19	68	65	9	7	7	48
Mississippi,	12	10	7	25	72	2	8	2	31
Louisiana,	15	15	19	36	1,713	7	5	9	77
Tennessee,	59	59	54	176	119	13	9	6	37
Kentucky,	100	113	90	169	173	16	25	5	83

Ohio,..........................	148	160	118	232	5,778	5	...	4	6
Indiana,....................	49	59	33	85	279	1	2	...	2
Illinois,....................	23	27	16	35	451	...	...	...	4
Missouri,..................	12	5	10	27	155	2	1	5	10
Michigan territory,....	4	7	4	5	1,497	...	...	...	...
Arkansas territory,...	6	2	2	8	11	4	...	...	2
Florida territory,......	2	...	8	8	221	1	2	3	16
District of Columbia,	4	5	8	11	724	2	...	...	8
Total,.............	1,652	1,905	1,806	3,974	107,832	273	246	224	1,470

The increase in ten years, adding a correction for the two months (½ per cent.), is, whole population, 33.92 per cent.; whites, 34.52; free colored, 34.85; slaves, 30.75; whole colored, 31.31. [Without this correction, the figures would have been 33.26, 33.85, 34.17, 30.15, 30.7.] The ratio of increase has therefore, in ten years, shown a slight enlargement. The whites have also gained over the colored. The proportion of the sexes continues nearly the same, though the female slaves show an increase of three per cent. The white children under ten years, and the bearing women, have diminished in proportion, showing, as it is argued, a decline in the ratio of *natural* increase.

New York has now assumed her empire position, and equals, in population, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania combined. Virginia has fallen considerably behind Pennsylvania. Ohio, Kentucky and Tennessee, continue their extraordinary advances.

[To be continued.]

ART. XI.—PROTECTION OF THE LOW LANDS OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

BY MAJOR BARNARD, ENGINEER'S CORPS.*

As it is becoming a question of absorbing interest in Louisiana, and one which seems to demand a speedy solution, how to protect ourselves against the annually increasing floods of the Mississippi, I have thought it would be interesting and, perhaps, useful, to translate from Dubuat's "Principes d'Hydrauliques," a portion of his remarks on "The straightening (a shortening, Fr. 'redressements') of rivers and the changes which may be made, in their course as in their bed."

The subject is peculiarly interesting, as it involves the question of the utility or propriety of "cut-offs"—a vexed question in Louisiana, and, for want of knowledge of the principles by which such operations should be made, nearly all the river coast of the State is now suffering.

It cannot be expected, however, that a philosopher, reasoning abstractly on the subject of rivers, should in view, or that his remarks should be generally applicable to, the Mississippi—a river "sui generis," and hardly to be subjected to the same formulas which apply to those of moderate size, as the Seine, Rhine, or the Danube. The Mississippi must be studied by itself, and that course of study and extended train of accurate observation, on which alone any reliable or even *safe* system of amelioration can be founded, can hardly be said to have yet been commenced. In want of such study and such observation, we can only form our opinions on the best knowledge attainable. Dubuat is a standard authority upon hydro-dynamics and the various phenomena of running streams, and his results are not arrived at by mere theory, but by a combination of theory with almost numberless experiments and unwearied observation. His remarks in relation to "redressements" (or cut-offs) are, perhaps, as applicable to the Mississippi as to any other river.

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* We are pleased to have Major Barnard a regular contributor to the Review—Ed.

I proceed to translate so much as is applicable, and I shall subjoin, in the shape of notes, what few practical observations occur to me.

"There are many cases where nature seems to have need of the assistance of art, to moderate the course of rivers, which sometimes pass from a well regulated state, in which they constitute the ornament, the fruitfulness and the wealth of a province, to extraordinary floods and to overflows which carry in their train terror, disorder, ravage and death. One sees, from time to time (and certain winters are the memorable epochs), rivers swollen by rains or the too sudden melting of snows, rise from their beds and spread, with their waters, over plain and valley, the calamities of a second deluge. The loss of crops and pasturages, the destruction of cattle, the fall of houses and edifices, the ruin of bridges and highways, the horrors of famine, are not the sole evils which then befall humanity; the waters, even in retiring, leave a germ of corruption and death in vast areas of land where the stagnant waters produce offensive and mortal exhalations which infect the air; and those whom the waters had spared, not unfrequently perish by the fatal influence of these malignant vapors.

"It must be admitted that, when large rivers are the cause of these calamities, there is little remedy; the labors, which it would be necessary to undertake to prevent them, are often beyond human efforts. But if the evil proceeds from rivers of moderate size, it is not impracticable to confine them to their beds; and the means which present themselves, most naturally, are 'cut-offs' (redressements).

"Most rivers form sinuosities which elongate the development of their course, and, in consequence, diminish the real slope of their beds. If a river, to traverse 200,000 yards of direct distance, with one hundred feet fall from one extremity to the other, makes 400,000 yards of developed course, it is clear that its slope, which would be one six-thousandth without sinuosities, is reduced to one twelve-thousandth, and the velocity is found to be diminished, not only by the diminution of its slope, but also by the resistance of all its bends or elbows, which can only be overcome by a certain portion of the total fall. Now, if, at the time of extraordinary floods, this river cannot contain all its waters in its bed, and is subject to overflow its banks, it is clear that it would cease to be so if some of its sinuosities, selected at intervals through its entire course, were cut off; since this operation would increase the slope in diminishing the developed length of its course. It is true, that such a shortening of the course might cause inconvenience if the shortening of the course was too great; and as it is in violation of nature, much circumspection is necessary, to apply it with impunity."

[Here follows a problem to determine how much the level of a river will be reduced, by shortening its course a certain amount, which I omit.]

"It must be allowed that this method of remedying the overflows and of avoiding the rupture of levees, is expensive; but it is not essential that it should be done all at once: it will often happen, even, that as it goes to the origin of the evil, it will cost less, in fact, than the thousand lesser means which are employed, one after another, to protect ourselves from the damage of overflows. (*a*)

"What an amount is actually spent in repairs of levees when they are carried away; in works for their protection—in draining canals—in raising the streets and houses of cities—in the removing of deposit, &c., without speaking of the extent of land consumed in mere loss by the sinuosities of rivers, the embarassment in the towage of boats and the loss of time which navigation suffers.

"*But it would be dangerous to straighten the sinuosities of a river in a portion of its course only, without doing as much in the rest of the space which it traverses to reach the sea; to act thus, would be to relieve one district by submerging another:* for the water, traversing with increased velocity the spaces in which the first cut-offs had been made, would be carried in superabundance, in less time during floods, upon those in which the slope had received no augmentation, *and would there cause overflows more considerable than before.* (*b*)

"There are, then, two manners of setting about it, when it is intended to straighten the course of a river, in order to relieve the inhabitants of its banks: the first is, to commence the shortening, or cutting off, in the portions nearest the mouth, and to complete the work by degrees, ascending as far as is judged necessary.

"The second manner, and the most perfect, is, to commence at once the principal cut-offs upon the entire course of the river, leaving intervals nearly equal, and undertaking only as much as the funds destined to the object permit to be accomplished each year; thus a bend cut off, every half league or league, * would be the labor of the first year, and afterward new cut-offs would be made in the intervals of the first, and so on, until the river is lowered to the desired point at which it no longer overflows its bed, even in the greatest floods." (*c*)

* * * * * * * *

"We are confident that this manner of effecting cut-offs is the most equitable and least costly: the most equitable, inasmuch as the imposition being made upon the entire country, all the river inhabitants will enjoy, at the same time, an amelioration proportionate to the amount of tax they have paid; and the least costly, inasmuch as experience, always surpassing theory as evidence to most men, will show the advantages and the progress of the remedy, and also the limit at which it is necessary to stop, to make no unnecessary expense—for the reduction of the level of the river waters being made by degrees from year to year, will give leisure to discuss the point at which it is best to stop, to reconcile all interests.

"However, as all excess is harmful, it may happen that straightening too much the course of a river, will give rise to evils as great as those it is intended to avoid; for the velocity of the current, rendered more rapid by the augmentation of the slope, may become so great as to excavate the bed and to cut away the banks—causing much injury, as rendering the bed uncertain and variable, confounding possessions and destroying the property of the inhabitants of the banks, without speaking of the more fatal effects which might result in towns and villages of which the edifices, bridges and wharfs, would be in danger of being undermined and thrown down.

"To guard against these evils, and considering, also, that the injuries at times of great floods, are mostly caused by the last foot, or, at most, by the last two or three feet of increment of height of the waters, it should be the object to prevent only this excessive height—retaining simply the river in its bed.(*d*)

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* The author is speaking of rivers of ordinary dimensions; a single bend of the Mississippi often occupies many leagues.

[Here follows a problem, to determine how much it is necessary to straighten the course of a river to reduce its waters to a certain limit, or to the height of its banks, which I omit, together with much other either irrelevant matter, or only applicable to rivers of much smaller size than the Mississippi. And I conclude my translation with a few words relating to levees.]

"When, even, it would be dangerous or impossible to prevent overflows and inundations by straightening the course of a river, there remains a resource in levees and dikes, which are raised along the margins of rivers, in the low parts, or wherever they are accustomed to overflow their banks.

* * * * * * * * *

"To draw from these dikes, or levees, all the advantage they can procure, it is proper not to make them immediately upon the edge of the banks, where it is to be feared that the velocity of the current may attack and undermine them, but at a distance from each shore proportional to the width of the bed.

"This distance might be fixed at half the width of the bed, in order that when the waters overflow their ordinary bed, they may spread themselves over, as it were, a double bed, in which the velocity of the current would be less. The space comprised between the river and its levees would not be lost; the grass might be suffered to grow there and make pasturages which would be generally good, unless the river carried, with its current, fine sand, which, being deposited over these wide margins, would render them sterile." (*e*)

NOTES.

(*a*) The author, in presuming the great expense of straightening the course of large rivers, founds his opinion, probably, upon the fact, that the greater part of rivers, flowing through rocky, gravely or tenacious soils, require *a new bed*, to be, in whole, or in greater part, dug, in order to alter their course. No such necessity, however, exists in the Mississippi, when it is the question to cut off those great bends so common to the river, in which a narrow neck of land, alone, separates the points to be united. A simple trench or canal of moderate size, across this narrow neck, is usually sufficient to change the course of the river; and it is to this facility of cutting off, that we owe the evils of two improper cut-offs.

(*b*) I have underscored portions of this paragraph, to call your attention to the gross violation of the principles it lays down, which has been committed in making the only two artificial cut-offs which have been made in the State, viz.: Shreves's Red river cut-off and the cut-off recently made immediately below it, under the authority of a formal law of the State.

It is here presumed to be dangerous to straighten the sinuosities of a river *in a portion of its course, without, at the same time, doing as much through all the space a river traverses to reach the sea;* that to act otherwise, is *to relieve one district by submerging another!* that the waters are, by the accelerated velocity of the cut-off, carried down upon all the country below it, *causing overflows more considerable than before.* In other words, that the effect of any single cut-off is to relieve the country *above it*, by *submerging that below it:* predictions which have been fulfilled to the letter, in the effects of the cut-offs above named, and which were, in relation to the last, urged, in so many words, by persons who had studied this subject, upon the attention of those concerned in urging or authorizing this cut-off.

(*c*) Two manners of undertaking a work of this kind are here prescribed: One is, to commence the work of cutting off at the lowest point of the course of a river to which it is necessary that the relief should extend, and to work gradually upward; the other, to distribute operations throughout the entire length to be relieved, and continuing until the desired reduction of level is obtained. In what has been already done, in the way of cut-offs upon the Mississippi, a manner the reverse of either of the above prescribed has been adopted. We have commenced at the highest point (within the exclusive jurisdiction of the State) and limited all operations to that point; a method of operating very much the same as if a person, finding his house dangerously high, should think to remedy the evil by cutting away the foot of the walls. We have brought the river down, in increased height, upon all the lower and wealthier portion of the State, while we have relieved the region above, less generally cultivated—and one river bank of which belongs to the State of Mississippi.

(*d*) It may now be inquired, whether, in accordance with the above principles, any system of cutting off can be adopted, which will have the desired effect of materially reducing the level of the river.

We have seen that, by shortening the course of the river, its velocity is increased, and, as a consequence, its level reduced. Hence, if, beginning at the mouth, or not far above the mouth, we could—by a system of straightening, or cutting off, uniformly distributed over the entire course of the river, up to such a point as it might be judged necessary to extend the improvement (say, the northern limits of the State)—shorten its course throughout this entire region, so that each particular part of the river would have its proportionate reduction of length, such an operation would, by increasing the slope and velocity of the river, materially reduce its height. On the other hand, it must constantly be borne in mind, that any partial operation, the cutting-off of any single bend, for example, relieves the river above only at the cost of increasing the floods below.

A special examination of the river and a laborious study of the subject, based upon the results of such an examination, can only enable us to decide, positively, that no relief to the lower river can be obtained by means of cut-offs. But two circumstances present themselves, which seem to destroy the anticipation of any considerable relief being obtained in this way:

1st. The velocity of the current is now so great, as to be highly destructive to the banks wherever it impinges, and this evil would be increased by any increase of velocity.

2d. There now remain few great bends below the Red river (the portion of the river which it is most necessary to relieve), and the operation of straightening the moderate curves would be entirely disproportionate in expense to the relief obtained. By cutting off the English turn, a reduction of about eight miles would be effected in the course of the river, and its surface would be depressed a certain quantity above, while the elevation below would be increased. The operation would not, however, be an easy one. We do not find any other great bends in the river (or such, at least, as could be easily cut off) until we ascend as high as Plaquemine. Judging, from the appearance on the map, there are two or three considerable bends in this neighborhood which might be cut off; ascending still higher, there appears to be no others between these latter and the Raccomei cut-off. Hence it does not appear practicable to devise any system of shortening or cutting off the river, from the Raccomei cut-off down, which shall be uniformly distributed over the whole length of this portion of the river; and the effect of partial operations, in the neighborhood of Plaquemine, would be, as we have before seen, to increase the height of the river below, and a cut-off at the English turn—the only one likely to relieve New Orleans and that portion of the river between the city and Plaquemine—would not probably afford a relief adequate to the cost.

Above the Red river to the northern boundary of the State, of the western portion of the State, there are numerous large bends which probably can be cut off with ease; and it is of the highest importance that every inhabitant of the coast below the Red river, or, indeed, of lower Louisiana, should understand the importance, the necessity, of preserving these bends, lest the facility of cutting them off, joined with local interests or blindness to the real consequences, should cause the same error to be repeated which has already been so injurious to the lower portion of the State. Every bend which may be cut off, in this upper region, throws an additional height of water upon the country below—now scarcely able to preserve its levees and maintain itself against the increased floods, which injudicious cut-offs and other more remote causes, bring down upon them.

(*e*) As the opposite systems of wide and narrow leveeing have been discussed in connection with the Mississippi, and the examples of the Loire and Po have been cited as illustrations, I have thought it worth while to translate the author's remarks in favor of the former system.

It is unquestionably judicious where applicable; but it is utterly inapplicable to the Mississippi at the present day. As a general rule, it is only the margin of the river which is available for cultivation, and the most valuable portion of this would be abandoned to overflow by this system. Moreover, the rapid deposit of sediment on these margins, would soon raise them to the level of high water, and thus defeat the object of obtaining additional surface for the spread of the waters.

It is not the intention of this paper to say what can be done, to reduce the floods of the river, and, indeed, I do not think the data yet exist, upon which the proper system of relief can be founded.

My object will be accomplished, if I have established some true principles on one subject, in place of the erroneous notions, through which a measure has been projected and executed under the sanction of the State, which has increased the floods of the lower river, and through which still greater evils, of the same kind, may yet be inflicted upon the citizens of New Orleans and lower Louisiana. J. G. Barnard,

Brevet Major, Corps of Engineers.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1. HAMBURG, GERMANY, AND IT'S TRADE, Etc.

[The following letter is from an intelligent German who has spent several years in our country, examining its institutions and studying its resources. He has prepared and published, in his own language, an able volume on these subjects, from which we design, at an early day, making some translations.—Ed.]

Altona, March 22d, 1850.

I have, in due time, been favored with your esteemed letter of 17th November, and I beg pardon for not having answered it before. A series of discourses I held this winter on the events, &c., during my voyage, has deprived me of the necessary leisure to send you a small contribution to your journal. I request now you will accept the statistics given below. Should they answer your purpose, they shall be continued on a more extended scale. I beg to offer my sincere thanks for your having published some extracts of my reports in your journal. I continue to take the greatest interest in the progress of your Union. Perhaps we may keep a statistical intercourse with each other.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

W. H. Nopitsch.

To J. B. De Bow, Esq., New Orleans.

STATEMENTS OF THE INSURANCE-BUSINESS IN HAMBURG SINCE 1816.

Amounts insured by Companies, Private Underwriters, and by Agents of Foreign Companies, and Average Premiums.

From 1816 *to* 1823.		*From* 1832 *to* 1839.	
1816,	By 124,398,000@2 7-8	1832,	By 202,918,000@1 7-16
1817,	By 150,708,000@2 9-16	1833,	By 198,699,000@1 9-16
1818,	By 175,899,000@2 1-16	1834,	By 189,434,000@1 5-8
1819,	By 129,211,000@1 7-8	1835,	By 195,233,000@1 1-2
1820,	By 150,791,000@1 11-16	1836,	By 219,814,000@1 15-32
1821,	By 129,016,000@2 3-16	1837,	By 214,555,000@1 19-32
1822,	By 98,280,000@2 5-16	1838,	By 224,163,600@1 1-2
1823,	By 99,894,000@3 1-16	1839,	By 250,281,400@1 1-2
Average,	By 132,274,000@2 9-32	Average,	By 202,012,000@1 17-32
From 1824 *to* 1831.		*From* 1840 *to* 1847.	
1824,	By 100,579,000@2 3-16	1840,	By 266,696,300@1 1-2
1825,	By 124,224,000@2 1-16	1841,	By 272,375,200@1 7-16
1826,	By 113,841,000@2 1-16	1842,	By 239,181,400@1 15-32
1827,	By 129,352,800@1 7-8	1843,	By 265,197,800@1 13-32
1828,	By 142,494,200@1 3-4	1844,	By 293,694,700@1 13-32
1829,	By 160,008,800@1 7-12	1845,	By 331,293,400@1 1-2
1830,	By 190,007,900@1 9-16	1846,	By 303,760,600@1 9-16
1831,	By 181,070,000@1 11-16	1847,	By 361,117,300@1 15-32
Average,	By 142,697,200@1 13-16	Average,	By 291,064,000@1 15-32

Results of the Insurance Business from 1835 *to* 1848, *excepts the sums insured by Private Underwriters and by Foreign Agents.*

Y'r	Amount insur'd.	Paid premium.		P'd av. losses.	Int's & chrgs.	Profit.	Loss.
1835	By 153,781,500	2,181,177.15	1.42	1,887,834.2	264,394	29,549.13	
1836	By 179,621,800	2,486,110	1.38	2,104,901.14	268,656.4	112,251.14	
1837	By 195,667,000	3,048,838.11	1.56	2,508,557,7	289,366.9	250,914.11	
1838	By 219,163,600	3,222,624.14	1.47	2,561,757.5	311,241.7	349,626.2	
1839	By 246,281,400	3,570,953.1	1.45	2,230,607.15	295,786.9	1,044,558.9	
1840	By 260,696,300	3,776,635.1	1.45	3,062,503.5	337,137.13	376,993.15	
1841	By 266,375,200	3,746,648.4	1.41	3,053,916.14	330.009.15	362,721.7	
1842	By 233,181,400	3,270,710.15	1.40	2,704,385.6	334,870.13	231,454.12	
1843	By 248,977,800	3,444,450.5	1.38	3,355,419.1	388,731.11		299,699.7
1844	By 270,894,700	3,726,411.3	1.38	3,515,090.3	397,241.14		185,920.14
1845	By 304,143,400	4,461,453.9	1.47	5,252,431.4	389,033.6		1,189,011.1
1846	By 278,040,600	4,174,543.6	1.50	3,553,899.5	380,320.4	240,323.13	
1847	By 333,812,500	4,939,245.2	1.48	3,517,408.5	403,543.7	1,018,303.6	
1848	By 236,793,500	4,778,420	2.02	4,355,370	443.581		20,531
For	3,427,430,700					4,016,698.6	1,686,162.6
The premium has been		50,828,823.6	1.48			1,686,162.6	
Averages and losses amount to				43,664,082.6			or 85.90 of am't of premium.
Int'sts on the installments, brok'ge and charges of admin.					4,834,205		or 9.50
Profit of the insurance companies in 14 years, from 1835 to '48,						2,330,536	or 4.59

NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF THE VESSELS OF THE NORTH GERMAN NAVAL STATES, BUT NOT INCLUDING COASTING VESSELS; ONE LAST AT THE RATE OF 4,000 LBS.

	End of 1836.		*End of* 1846.		*Beginning of* 1850.	
	Ves.	*Lasts.*	*Ves.*	*Lasts.*	*Ves.*	*Lasts.*
Prussia,	604	73,696	896	113,048	896	132,072
Hanover,	401	24,155	562	35,883	......	....
Oldenburg,	85	3,614	132	8,257	......	....
Mecklenburg,	276	19,776	300	28,268	......	....
Schleswig Holstein,	203	19,757	338	30,985	......	....
Hamburg,	346	17,606	228	30,336	236	41,026
Bremen,	129	17,471	225	41,251	236	46,435
Lubeck,	61	5,663	68	7,280	......	....
Together,	1,905	181,738	2,749	295,258	......	....

PRODUCTION OF WOOLENS IN AUSTRIA.

The production is now estimated at 1,374,500 pieces, amounting to 67,945,000 florins, requiring a production of 600,000 cwt. of wool. Adding to these 600,000 cwt. the exportation of yarn, 25,000 cwt., and of raw wool, 167,000 cwt., the whole production of wool amounts to 792,000 cwt.

This approximate estimate seems to be very correct, as the total number of sheep in Austria is stated to be 27 millions, and an average production of coarse and fine woollen sheep may be reckoned at 3 lbs. per piece.

1 Austrian cwt. — 123½ English lbs.
1 " florin — 42 cents United States currency.

REVIEW OF THE PRODUCTION OF MINES, FURNACES AND SALT WORKS, IN THE PRUSSIAN STATES, 1848.

	No. Works.	*Production.*	*Val. of production at place of origin.**	*No. men empl'yd.*
I. MINES.				
1. Iron ore,	1,067	1,141,779 bbls.‡	739,481	8,165
2. Lead ore,	167	460,101 cwt.	405,286	2,450
3. Copper ore,	32	727,855 "	329,293	3,030
4. Spelter ore,†	79	2,487,910 "	384,566	4,287
5. Cobalt ore,	8	280 "	18,017	78
6. Arsenic ore,	4	5,985 "	3,212	55
7. Antimony ore,	2	1,388 "	4,275	45
8. Manganese ore,	3	2,099 "	2,856	42
9. Blue ores,	8	143,534 bbls.	8,479	142
10. Vitriol ores,	8	53,409 cwt.	8,671	32
11. Coals,	415	17,571,581 bbls.	6,704,670	27,723
12. Brown coals,	377	8,118,553 "	958,362	5,975
13. Black lead,	1	326 cwt.	137	4
14. Asphaltum,	...	......	......	......
15. Fusible spat,	2	11,887 bbls.	5,207	86
Total,	2,193		9,572,512	52,065
II. FURNACES.				
1. *Iron,*	128	1,984,827 cwt.	3,885,199	3,473
Steel iron pigs,	9	127,209 "	277,428	342
Cast iron from ore,	25	374,497 "	1,286,520	4,006
" from pigs,	85	466,544 "	2,500,446	4,765
Bar and milled iron,	518	2,248,480 "	10,478,195	11,196
Sheet iron,	20	153,648 "	1,118,018	508
Iron wire,	97	94,998 "	786,663	1,176
Steel,	112	110,345 "	848,428	806
2. *Silver,*	4	28,942 mark.	395,662	16
3. *Lead produce.*				
Kaufblei,†	29	55,061 cwt.	293,410	347
Litharge,		11,922 "	67,387	......
Milled sheet-lead	1	659 "	5,626	......
4. *Copper.*				
Unwrought,	13	23,283 "	719,911	703
Wrought,	24	20,758 "	849,719	321
5. Brass,	10	20,068 "	686,355	125
6. *Spelter.*				
In cakes,	41	398,736 "	1,473,911	2,284
In sheets,	1	16,291 "	77,226	43
7. Smalts,	4	7,388 "	88,465	46
8. Nickel,	1	40 "	2,800	4
9. Arsenic,	3	2,055 "	12,718	5
10. Antimony,	2	661 "	7,915	6
11. Alum,	16	41,336 "	167,261	317
12. *Vitriol.*				
Sulphate of copper,	2	3,409 "	40,675	10
" of iron,	6	18,913 "	22,539	33

Sulphate of mixed,	2	4,229 "	19,872	......
13. Sulphur,	1	655 "	2,645	56
Total,	1,154	....	25,612,892	30,653
III. SALTWORKS.				
1. Common white salt,	21	56,341 lasts.	1,416,313	2,253
2. Black and yellow salt,	......	191 "	2,093	......
3. Plaster for manuring,	......	31,921 sheffel.	7,887	......
Total,	21		1,426,295	2,253
Grand total,	3,368		36,611,699	84,664
Of these belong to the principal mining districts:				
1. Blandenburg, Prussia,	197	....	3,295,907	4,357
2. Silesian	610	....	9.299,495	23,585
3. Saxon, Thueringen,	411	....	3,904,764	10,867
4. Westphalian,	528	....	7,665,956	18,279
5. Rhinish,	1,616	....	12.445,597	27,576

* In Prussian thalers, one = 72 cents. † Lapis calaminaris. ‡ In German, Tonnen.

2. COMMERCIAL RESOURCES OF THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH.

The agitation of the subject of slavery, which threatens to dissolve the Union, involves some very serious reflections, particularly to that portion of the community engaged in commerce and the inland trade between the North and the South.

A glance at some of our business streets exhibits the immense trade with the South and Southwest, and we contemplate with satisfaction the importance and value of the South to the North.

It would be better if some of our legislators understood more thoroughly the statistics of trade between the North and South, and between the United States and foreign countries. They would be better enabled to estimate the consequences, that would be sure to follow disunion, upon the value of every species of property at the North, and changing its location to the South.

Could these important points be seen by our public men at Washington, a better feeling would prevail, and less acrimony would show itself, in meeting the questions which now agitate the country.

The agricultural interests of the United States are paramount to all others, for upon this branch of industry commerce is supported and manufactures thrive. If we look at that section of the Union, which grows for export the largest in amount, and by far the most important commodity of any productions of this country, or of the world, we see that the South, where slave labor is employed, furnishes, in cotton alone, the whole Union with a large proportion of the means to pay for the imports from foreign countries.

The following table will show the value of such articles of agriculture, produced at the South, as will always command a foreign market, for the past three years, viz.:

	1849.	1848.	1847.
Cotton,	$95,250.000	74,620,000	72,905,000
Tobacco,	6,616,741	8,756,369	11,008,206
Rice,	3.841,964	3,575,895	3,091,215
Naval stores,	1,624,190	1.864,319	1,798,612
	$107,332 895	88,816,754	88,803,027
To the above may be added sugar and Molasses,	18 417,500	16,486,000	22,746,430
Total agricultural productions of slave States,	$125,750,595	105,302,574	111,559,457

Of which there were exported to foreign countries, during the same period, derived from official returns, viz.:

	1849.	1848.	1847.
Cotton,	$66,396,967	61,998,294	53.415,878
Tobacco,	5,804,204	7,551.122	7,242,086
Rice	2,569,362	2,331,824	3,605,896
Naval stores,	815,161	752,303	759,221
	$75,615,700	72,633,643	65,023,051

It will be seen by the above tables, that not only did the South furnish the staples—amounting to $75,615,700, in 1849—to pay for our imports, in part, to foreign countries, but reserved a large amount for domestic consumption. Every dollar of these exports from the South was the production of her own soil, and

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I. **Mines.**				
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2. **Lead ore,**	167	460,101 cwt.	405,286	2,450
3. **Copper ore,**	32	727,855 "	329,293	3,030
4. **Spelter ore,†**	79	2,487,910 "	384,566	4,287
5. **Cobalt ore,**	8	280 "	18,017	78
6. **Arsenic ore,**	4	5,985 "	3,212	55
7. **Antimony ore,**	2	1,388 "	4,275	45
8. **Manganese ore,**	3	2,099 "	2,856	42
9. **Blue ores,**	8	148,534 bbls.	8,479	142
10. **Vitriol ores,**	8	53,409 cwt.	8,671	32
11. **Coals,**	415	17,571,581 bbls.	6,704,670	27,728
12. **Brown coals,**	377	8,118,553 "	958,362	5,975
13. **Black lead,**	1	326 cwt.	137	4
14. **Asphaltum,**	...	......	......	......
15. **Fusible spat,**	2	11,887 bbls.	5,207	36
Total,	2,193		9,572,512	52,065
II. **Furnaces.**				
1. ***Iron,***	128	1,984,827 cwt.	3,385,199	3,473
Steel iron pigs,	9	127,209 "	277,428	342
Cast iron from ore,	25	374,497 "	1,286,520	4,006
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Bar and milled iron,	518	2,248,480 "	10,478,195	11,196
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Sulphate of copper,	2	3,409 "	40,675	10
" **of iron,**	6	18,913 "	22,539	33

Skins, furs and ginseng,......................	839,194	770,427	811,612
Lumber, and articles manufactured from wood,	3,718,033	5,066,877	3,806,341
Ashes,..................................	514.603	466,477	618,000
Provisions, estimated at......................	10,000,000	8,800,000	7,300,000
Breadstuffs, "	10.000.000	18,000,000	42,000,000
Miscellaneous,..............................	1,800,000	1,500,000	1,200,000
	$28,420'484	35,584,744	59,203,986
Manufactured goods, estimated at.............	12,000,000	11,000,000	9,000,000
	$50,420,484	$48,584,744	$68,203,986

This table goes further to show the consequences that would result from disunion, than any other proof we could have adduced. It would not only be mortifying, but disastrous to all of the great interests the North have at stake, to have their foreign trade cut down from one hundred and fifty millions to fifty millions of dollars. How would such a state of things affect real estate in the cities of the north? What would be the effect in this city alone? Such a falling off in the commerce of New York would at once be felt in every department of business. If the slave States are driven to a separation from the free States, the decline of the North, in her commercial ascendency, may be dated from that event. It would require more space than we can allow here, to trace the ruin that would follow to commerce, trade, manufactures, and to credit generally. We, at the North, would have, besides a deranged currency at home, most of our own State and government securities, now owned in Europe, back upon our market, to absorb what ready capital we possessed, and which would be required, at such a crisis, to assist in establishing a new order of things; for it would be folly to suppose that we could go on and supply, for any length of time, the South with the manufactures of the North, upon the same terms as heretofore.

The tariff upon northern manufactures would be so framed as to give preference to those of Europe; consequently, one of the new changes would be the removal, to the South, of hosts of importers, many of whom are foreigners, and have particular predilection for the North over the South. They could as well conduct their business in Charleston or Savannah, as New York or Philadelphia. Another change would be, the removal of numerous small manufacturers, and, in time, many large ones too. It is impossible to depict the consequences of disunion upon the trade and commerce of the whole country; for it cannot be denied, that the South would at first suffer, but past experience shows, that the North has every thing to lose, while the South has but little to gain. We trust that, with these facts before the whole commercial people of the United States, the North will not refuse to meet the subject, now agitating the whole length and breadth of the land, in such a liberal manner, as will permanently settle the great question at issue.—*N. Y. Courier and Enquirer.*

3. THE COFFEE TRADE.

We present below a statement of the present condition of the coffee crop and the trade, which possesses much interest. It comes to us from a reliable source, and we commend it to the attention of our readers:

After the recent fall in the article of coffee, it is of the utmost consequence to all interested to ascertain if any, and what, new features have presented themselves, to affect the ultimate value of the article. As regards supply, there appears no reason to alter the estimate of production which we gave on the first of December last.

With reference to Brazil—the most important producing country—a high authority, writing from Rio, under date of 15th January, says: "No doubt can be any longer entertained that the total exports for the crop year, ending 30th June, 1850, will not exceed the very low estimate made in November last, of 1,200,000 bags.

"The production of Java the next in importance, is even shorter than was anticipated—the entire crop of 1849-50 is ascertained to have been only 387,000 piculs—and, exclusive of the 140,000 bags bought in by the Dutch Trading Company, they cannot have more than 330,000 bags available for their autumn sales.

"The production of Ceylon will not exceed the 30,000,000 lbs. set down for it, and the minor countries will yield, in the aggregate, about the estimated quantities. Again, looking beyond the present year, with the exception of the crop of the Brazils, which *now* promises well, there is no reason to anticipate increased supplies from any quarter. In Java the late deficiency is chiefly owing to *diminished cultivation*, the natural result of unremunerative returns, and the late high prices have not yet ruled sufficiently long to induce a resumption of the abandoned estates: and from no other country do we hear of a prospect of augmented supplies.

"Turning to the question of demand, there can be no doubt, that, in this country and on the continent, there is some reason to apprehend that consumption has been checked to a slight extent by the advance in price. Allowing, however, for a falling off of 20 per cent. in the consumption of coffee in Europe, and taking the imports of the five months ending 31st July, at 40,000 tons, although at present we cannot see the possibility of receiving even 30,000 tons, the stock in Europe on the 31st July, will be only 55,400 tons, against 81,600 and 102,100 at the same periods of 1849 and 1848, respectively. With such a very *reduced* supply on hand to meet contingencies, and with the production (even making every allowance for a diminished consumption), barely adequate to the world's requirements, it is evident that the tendency of prices must (with perhaps occasional fluctuation) continue to be upward for some time to come."

The above is extracted from a circular, dated London, April 1st, 1850—and for reference, we now add the ascertained production of the crop year ending 30th June, 1850, and also the consumption of the world in 1848 and 1849:

PRODUCTION.	lbs.
Brazil,	184,000,000
Java and Manilla,	60,000,000
Ceylon,	30,000,000
Cuba, P. R.,	30,000,000
Hayti,	30,000,000
Mocha,	20,000,000
La Guayra,	26,000,000
British and French West Indies,	30,000,000
	410,000,000

CONSUMPTION.	lbs.
Holland and Netherlands,	80,000,000
Germany and North Europe,	170,000,000
France and South Europe,	90,000,000
United States and British North America,	175,000,000
Great Britain,	40,000,000
	555,000,000

From these figures it will be seen, that the production of coffee for the crop season ending 30th June, 1850, will be 145,000,000 of pounds short of what would have been the consumption, had prices remained at the low rate current during 1848 and at the commencement of 1849; and if we take off the decrease of twenty per cent., attendant upon the late high prices, we shall still have an excess of consumption over production of 35,000,000 pounds.

The production of the next crop year will be increased by the difference in the Brazil crop, which is now stated to be abundant, but which is still on the trees, and is subject to many contingencies; however, allowing the crop to be a large one—say 1,700,000 bags, and that is 200,000 bags more than has ever been grown in Brazil in one year (for, although shipments from Brazil have reached 1,868,000 bags, this has only been when a large surplus has been left over from the preceding crop, which cannot be the case this season)—what would be the result? That the shipments for the twelve months, ending the 30th of June, 1851, would be 1,400,000 bags, or 224,000,000 pounds—being an excess of 40,000 over that of last year—which, added to the estimated production of 1849–50, would give, for the production of the world in 1850–51, 450,000,000 pounds, against a consumption of 445,000,000 pounds; this consumption being the very reduced one, predicated on the late very high prices, and very likely to be very much larger at the present comparatively low rates; and when, at the same time, stocks, in all hands (except those of importers), both in Europe and in the United States, are next to nothing; and the stock in importers' hands, in Europe, is 50,000 tons, against a stock, in former years, of 89,000 and 100,000 tons.

With these facts and figures before us, it is certainly to be expected that the future course of prices must be upward; for we cannot look for even our share of the production of the world, so long as our prices are 15 @ 20 per cent. below those of Europe—and while the last quotations from Rio de Janeiro (4th of March) made good coffee cost sixteen cents per pound, landed in this country.

4. COMMERCE OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

In volume vi, page 17, of Commercial Review, we have comprehended many particulars relating to Rio, which is the chief emporium of Brazilian commerce, and now add the latest statistics, from a paper published in that city, the present year. The exports of hides, in 1849, were 138,838 pieces to the United States, or about one-half of the whole export. The importations from the United States were butter, candles, codfish, cordage, flour (167,000 bbls. out of 244,000), hams, cotton manufactures, beef and pork, paper, pepper, resin, tea, wax, &c. Foreign countries, however, contribute vastly more than ourselves to the commerce of Rio.

BAY AND CITY OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

The bay, studded with picturesque islands, circles up, bold and beautiful, some thirty miles into the main land. The shore presents a glittering beach, which retreats into the green recesses of a deep ravine, and is there overhung by some stupendous cliff, which throws its dark shadows below. The whole bay is like a resplendent lake looking to heaven amid Alpine pinnacles. High above all soars the steep Corcovada, where plays the first blush of morn, and where the dying day lingers; while the Organ mountains, with their sharp peaks, pour down the harmony of the winds. All between these lofty barriers and the quiet bay presents a forest of fantastic cones, while swinging depths of shade wave over the glad rills that leap down their sides and make music at their base. It would seem as if a volcano had thrown up these hills in a frolic; or, as if some Titanic spirit, imbued with a love of the wonderful, had been permitted to work out its conceptions in these wild shapes.

The city descends from mountain coves to the strand of the bay, like a spreading stream, which encounters here a rolling hill and there a projecting bluff. Some of the elevations are crowned with public edifices—but no princely palaces, gorgeous dome or glittering spire, strongly arrests the eye. The architecture of man here is so inferior to that of nature, it ought to make an apology whenever it shows itself. It is like the tent of an Arab throwing its dirty cone beneath the magnificent umbrage of the palm. It is said the genius of a people is in harmony with the scenery in the midst of which they have been reared; but here is scenery that might almost throw sunbows over the dreams of the dead, and architecture somber enough to send even a Quaker to sleep. Such is the aspect of the city, as seen from our frigate, swinging at her anchors in front of the imperial palace. A nearer view may possibly bring out some concealed beauty. But cities, like fashionable women, are apt to betray their charms at the first blush.

COMPARATIVE table of the principal articles of export from Rio de Janeiro, during the years 1847, 1848 and 1849, showing the increase or decrease upon the average of the three years:

	COFFEE. *Bags.*	SUGAR. *Cases.*	HIDES.	HORNS.	RICE. *Bags.*
January,	119,688	701	25,155	14,895	1,955
February,	159,692	131	22,988	83,082	896
March,	123,416	870	55,576	50.268	1,794
April,	169,424	829	41,112	56,941	2,581
May,	106,721	325	35,657	16,884	4,310
June,	101,823	187	8,543	16,255	1.803
July,	107,963	245	11,537	44.906	1,416
August,	167,500	94	28,199	32,963	727
September,	77,567	825	29,082	12.509	775
October,	120.077	473	17,055	16,620	1.019
November,	142.953	496	27,613	22,881	1,778
December,	57,156	803	10,840	17,471	1,663
Year 1849,	1.463.980	5,979	313,359	385,685	20,717
" 1848,	1,710,707	5.848	327,505	285,527	9,808
" 1847,	1,641,560	8,311	274,604	447,607	20,021

STATEMENT of the quantity of manufactured cottons, linens, silks and woolens, received from each of the principal contributing countries, from 1847 to 1849:

	PACKAGES.				PACKAGES.		
Cottons.	1847.	1848.	1849.	*Silks.*	1847.	1848.	1849.
Great Britain,	27,962	18,217	19,666	Great Britain,	362	224	194
United States,	5,866	6.545	5.765	France	608	383	393
France,	2,117	1,758	2,055	Hanse Towns,	33	46	63
Hanse Towns,	612	395	414	Sardinia,	34	35	32
Belgium,	752	421	362	Belgium,	33	37	24
				Spain	38	52	24
				United States,	25	35	14
Linens.				*Woolens.*			
Great Britain,	1,663	1,160	569	Great Britain,	4,172	2,625	1,594
Portugal,	197	166	85	France,	743	579	516
France,	63	80	60	Hanse Towns,	157	120	161
Hanse Towns,	59	25	43	Belgium,	48	80	59

Comparative destination of coffee exported in 1848 and 1849, showing the increase or decrease in 1849:

	BAGS.			
Destination.	1848.	1849.	*Inc'se.*	*Dec'se.*
Antwerp,.........	101,729	87,126	....	14,603
Baltic,............	26,048	16,186	....	9,862
Bremen,..........	18,546	9,273	....	9,273
Cape of Good Hope,.........	22,446	8,155	....	14,291
Channel,.........	190,912	297,493	106,584	....
Denmark,......	42,629	53,015	10,386	....
France,..........	49,294	53,587	4,293	....
Hamburg and Alta,...........	475,581	70,916	....	104,665
Holland,........	11,082	....	....	11,082
Mediterra'n,...	136,904	139,932	3,028	....
Portugal,.......	52,200	15,951	....	26,249
Spain,...........	....	....	....	....
Sweden,.........	58,228	48,806	....	9,422
Trieste,..........	26,148	19,782	....	6,366
U. States,.......	806,907	631,132	....	175,775
Other ports,...	2,053	2,626	573	....
	1,710,707	1,453,980	....	256,727

Comparative export of coffee, in bags, to the various ports of the United States, from 1847 to 1849:

	1849.	1848.	1847.		1849.	1847.	1847.
Baltimore,...........	178,579	213,452	115,398	New Orleans,......	200,477	269,418	273,809
Boston,...............	18,201	44,035	39,994	New York,..........	175,821	198,581	245,685
Charleston,.........	11,737	24,629	16,868	Philadelphia,......	44,135	46,622	23,404
Mobile,...............	......	5,850	12,400	Savannah,..........	2,482	4,320	2,184

The exportation of the first six months of 1850 will be immeasurably short of that in the same period of 1849, but to what extent it is not possible to state; nor can any estimate be made for some few months, as this will principally depend upon the quantity of new coffee which may be received by the end of May or beginning of June.

749,039 bags were shipped by seven houses; the names of these, and the quantities shipped by each of them during the last three years, are as follows:

	1849.	1848.	1847.		1849.	1848.	1847.
Maxwell, Wright & Co.,..	204,676	237,727	164,163	G. & W. Heymann,.......	69,684	38,328	55,721
Phipps, Brothers & Co.,..	154,286	128,642	127,577	Stockmeyer, Saportas & Co.,..........................	63,251	50.241	24,318
Coleman, Hutton & Co.,	111,100	152,348	121,191	Miller, Le Cocq & Co.,....	54,726	59,806	50,201
F. Le Breton & Co.,........	91,316	130,123	69,314				

Movement of the flour market from 1847 to 1849, both years inclusive:

	BARRELS.			
Months.	*Imported.*	*Sold.*	*Sh'd coast.*	*Re-exp.*
January,.......	18,055	18,472	2,719	2,425
February,......	13,667	13,427	3,214	530
March,..........	6,485	22,799	3,095	169
Jan. 1 to Mar. 31,..............	38,207	48,698	9,028	3,114
April,.............	21,424	16,727	4,001	4,428
May,..............	11,786	24,258	4,142	4,064
June,.............	6,865	8,977	3,022	16
Jan. 1 to June 30,..............	78,282	98,650	20,193	13,622
July,.............	10,289	14,607	2,576	554
August,.........	7,252	13,506	1,640	1,545
September,....	14,828	9,514	1,620	152
Jan. 1 to Sept. 30..............	110,651	136,287	27,029	13,873
October,.........	15,047	18,127	1,740	566
November,.....	46,847	35,986	3,614	2,357
December,......	24,351½	18,816½	3,180	2,335
Total in 1849,..	195,896½	209,216½	35,563	19,131
Total in 1848,..	244,812½	210,249	40,448	17,402
" 1847,..	190,875	178,895½	36,850	27,273

SALES FROM 1847 TO 1849.

	Richmond.	*Baltimore.*	*Southern.*	*European.*
1847,.......	65,843	70,046	30,599½	4,185
1848,.......	62,644½	90,414	42,332½	5,040
1849,.....	90,401½	83,506	26,932	6,314

RANGE OF PRICES IN 1849.

	First.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*
Gallego,............	$17 00	$18 00	$15 00
Haxall,..............	16 50	18 00	15 00
Baltimore,..........	14 00	16 00	13 00
Philadelphia,......	14 00	15 00	12 25
Southern,...........	15 00	16 50	12 00
New Orleans,.....	14 00	14 00	13 50
European 1 s,....	17 00	18 00	15 50
" 2 s,....	15 00	16 00	13 00

5. STATISTICS OF THE REPUBLIC OF LIBERIA.*

Extent.—The extent of the republic of Liberia, on the western coast of Africa, was thus defined at a recent meeting of her legislature: commencing at the mouth of the Grand Cape Mount river, on the north-west, it runs due south-east to Grand Sesters, in 4° 41′ north latitude, and 8° 8′ west longitude from Greenwich; the mean parallel distance from the ocean being forty-five miles, and the length of coast, from Cape Mount to Grand Sesters, being estimated at four hundred miles. The right of possession and jurisdiction over all this line has been *purchased* from the native proprietors by the American Colonization Society. For some time past, vigorous efforts have been made to procure the Gallinas ter-

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*The term Liberia was given to the then colony, by the Colonization Society, in 1824. The late Gen. Robert Goodloe Harper, of Maryland, is entitled to the honor of proposing the name; and, as he himself said, "I have thought of this name because it expresses the object and nature of our institution, and denotes a settlement of persons *made free*."

ritory. This tract of country is immediately west of Cape Mount, and is noted as one of the chief points for shipping the poor victims of the slave trade. It is thought that there will be no serious difficulty in securing it, as soon as the necessary means are received for the purpose.

Population.—The inhabitants of Liberia, emigrants from the United States and their children, number four thousand. To these may be added about one thousand natives, civilized and admitted to the privileges of the polls and the rights of citizenship in general. The natives, residing on land owned by the republic, and directly amenable to its laws, are estimated at from fifteen to twenty-five thousand. The population of the allied tribes in the interior, who are bound by treaty to abstain from the slave trade, under penalty of death, is not accurately known, but may be safely estimated at two hundred thousand.

Towns and Settlements.—Monrovia, on the south side of Cape Mesurado, near the north-western boundary of Liberia, is the capital and chief place of trade—population, one thousand. The other ports are Marshall and Farmington, on the Junk river; Edina, Bexley and Rosenberg, on the Saint John's river; Bassa Cove and Cresson, on the coast, near the mouth of the last named river, and Greenville, Blue Barre, Louisiana, Sinol and Reedville, on or near the Sinoe river. The more inland towns are Caldwell, New Georgia, Millsburg, Kentucky, White Plains and Heddington, on the Saint Paul's river.

Productions of the Soil.—Coffee, cotton, sugar cane, rice, indigo, Indian corn, potatoes, yams, cassadas, bananas, arrowroot, nuts of almost all varieties, castor oil beans, ginger, pepper, cocoa, beans, peas, fruits, are various and abundant, and many other tropical productions.

Exports.—The chief exports are camwood, ivory, palm oil, coffee, ginger, arrowroot and pepper. The value of these articles annually exported, as per official returns, is near $100,000.

Imports.—Tobacco, cotton goods of all kinds, silks, hardware, crockery ware, and flour, beef, pork, bacon, cheese, soap, candles, &c., are imported into Liberia, principally from the United States, to the amount of $120,000 to $150,000 per annum.

Religious Aspect.—Churches, 28; communicants, 2,000, of whom 700 are natives and recaptured Africans.

Education.—Schools, 20; scholars, 670, of whom 200 are native Africans. The Sunday schools embrace a far larger number. In addition to these, the higher branches of education are taught in the Alexander High School, at Monrovia, and in the Methodist Conference Seminaries, at Monrovia and White Plains.

In the foregoing, we have merely given the statistics of the new republic, as gleaned from official sources. They may be relied upon as correct. Cape Palmas, being a separate colony, under the auspices and entire control of the Maryland State Colonization Society, is not included, in any way, in the foregoing.

At the present time, there is not a white person in Liberia at all connected with its government. The few that are within its limits are exclusively occupied in missionary operations among the natives. Among other interesting facts, the colored man is there working out the problem of self-government. Past events have, so far, proved his entire capability; let us try and endeavor to remove all obstacles from his path, so that the trial may be a fair one.

6. PRODUCTIONS OF CUBA.

We have published several elaborate articles upon this island, in our first eight volumes, and, more particularly, in the number for April, 1850.

AGRICULTURAL AND OTHER PRODUCTIONS OF CUBA IN 1849.

Agriculture.	
Garden fruits,	$14,839,050
Sugar,	13,699,924
Esculent vegetables and fodder,	6,097,080
Tobacco,	5,042,829
Coffee,	2,206,131
Indian corn,	1,884,982
Charcoal,	1,750,110
Cedar, mahogany, and other woods,	1,711,193
Molasses,	1,462,728
Other agricultural productions,	3,278,175
Total value of agricultural productions,	$51,972,202

Dairy and Domestic Animals.	
Beef,	$3,605,780
Pork,	1,346,055
Eggs,	1,166,880
Birds,	1,074,216
Milk,	326,040
Hides,	180,289
Mutton,	120,000
Total value of the dairy and domestic animals,	$ 7,819,260
Agricultural productions,	51,972,202
Grand total,	$59,791,462

Exports of produce from Havanna.

	1847.	1848.	1849.
Sugar, boxes,....	644,853	686,980	612,801
Coffee, arrobas, ..	326,061	118,262	316,246
Molasses, hhds.,	32,482	27,514	36,256
Cigars, lbs., ...	1,982,267	150,729	111,572
Tobacco, lbs.,...	1,936,829	1,350,815	1,158,265

Exports of produce from Matanzas.

	1847.	1848.	1849.
Sugar, boxes,....	361,913	313,352	237,547
Coffee, hhds., ...	101,557	8,431	55,648
Molasses, hhds.,..	51,975	58,219	61,117

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1. COTTON—WHAT THE LONDON TIMES THINKS OF THE AMERICAN MONOPOLY.

THE law of supply and demand is the leverage which moves the commercial world. When an indispensable article of consumption becomes scarce, the value, as a natural consequence, rises in the market, just as it falls in value when there is a superabundance. Applying this incontrovertible fact to cotton, you would imagine, to hear certain sapient persons talk, that they desired a bill of indictment against the whole of the southern planters, because they cannot control the seasons and furnish abundance of raw material for all the spindles in the world. These grumblers forget that the grower can no more regulate the price of cotton than he can mete out the sunshine which feeds, or the frost which kills the plant. The southerners engaged in the cultivation of the staple might justly retort, upon the lords of Cottonopolis, in the language of the ancient Briton: "If Cæsar can hide the sun with a blanket, and put the moon in his pocket, we 'll pay tribute to him for light."

At the same time, when the equilibrium of prices has been destroyed by an unlooked-for casualty, when exclusive dependence upon a particular country for an essential article of commerce is found to interfere with the legitimate course of capital and labor, it becomes not only necessary but imperative to look elsewhere for a supply fully equal to the requirements of the times, so as to be provided for every contingency, and in this spirit we can discern nothing to censure, but, on the contrary, much to commend, in the pains which are now taken to procure a supply of cotton from other parts of the world, to compensate for the unquestionable deficiency of the American crop.

Much has been said and written about the capabilities of India to send us as much cotton as we require, and to a certain degree of faith in the capacity of that country may be traced the anxiety with which the public has watched the formation of Indian railways, and the eagerness with which their progress and completion have been regarded. The East India company has partaken largely of this feeling, and has extended a helping hand to two companies which have taken the field, and for which acts of parliament, were passed in the last session. One of these companies will cut a line from Calcutta to Delhi; the other a line from Bombay to Kalliar, in the direction of the great cotton field of Ghauts. These undertakings may be regarded as in practical operation, for the East India company has guaranteed a dividend on the outlay, which makes their completion a matter of certainty. A third line from Madras to Arcot is also projected; but whether it will struggle into existence is at present somewhat questionable. Nevertheless, grave doubts exist whether the best internal communication in the world would enable India to grow cotton in quantities sufficient to affect the price in the home market. At present India grows little more than is required for its own consumption and the export trade to China; and as to quality, it is impossible, under any circumstances, that the cotton of India can ever compete with the long staple of America.

Port Natal is also mentioned with encouragement as a cotton growing district; but the smallness of the population, and the fact that no vessel has ever yet sailed from D'Urban, the only port in the colony, direct to England, shows that a long period must elapse ere its developments can produce tangible results.

The most feasible scheme, of the many which have been broached, is one put forward by the owners of property in British Guiana. The West India Association, in their petitions to Parliament, as well as in their memorial to the colonial [illegible] make out a strong case on behalf of the West Indies generally, and of Demerara more especially. The labor question is at the bottom of all our West Indian difficulties. Every plan adopted, since the emancipation of the black population, to secure a sufficiency of labor has failed, and the Association ask, through Mr. F. Shand, their chairman, permission to engage blacks on the coast of Africa on the plan which the British factories on the river Bonny adopt with the natives of the Kroo coast, namely: to hire them, say for five years—at the expiration of which time they can return, if they desire it, to their native country. In the estimation of many persons, this would be equivalent to a renewal of the slave trade; but if similar arrangements were permitted in the case of the Coolies, and in the one referred to (that of the Kroo blacks), we can see no sufficient reason why precautions might not be taken on the African coast, as well as at Demerara, to protect the blacks, who might willingly enter into these engagements, from the possibility of wrong or injury. To no higher practical end could the naval force which excites Mr. Hutt's antipathy be directed, and under judicious regulations the moral and physical condition of the laborers, instead of being deteriorated, would in reality be improved and elevated by the boon which the West India Association solicit at the hands of government and the country. If the experiment were tried in British Guiana, it might, if successful, be extended to the West India islands.

In the mean time the southern planters of America, stimulated by the prices which now prevail, have every inducement to extend the cultivation of cotton, with, if possible, increased power and capital. Probably the next crop may, in its amplitude, compensate for the shortness of the last one, and the outcry which now exists for other fields of cultivation in various quarters of the globe, would, in the event of such a result, correspondingly abate. But, at the same time, they will read the signs which are every day passing around them very imperfectly, if they do not perceive a fixed determination on the part of the merchants and manufacturers of this country and its government, to rely less exclusively than heretofore on the cotton of the United States. *Experientia docet.*

2. SUCCESSFUL COTTON PLANTING IN THE POOR LANDS OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

Mr. Glen, of Pendleton, has published his plan of culture:

The crop of 1848, he made, with three hands, 27,000 pounds of seed cotton; and this, too, from twenty-five acres of land. Each acre making over 1,000 pounds. Making something over 17 bags, of 400 each, or six bags to the hand, besides provisions enough for his family and stock. His farm is all upland, lies on the north side of Three-and-Twenty Mile creek, seven miles east of Pendleton, and was purchased by him some four or five years ago, at, I think, four dollars per acre, of Col. Hamilton.

He says it is more convenient to plant in the middles, but better to plant on the old bed. When he manures he runs a furrow on the old bed, puts in manure in the common way, throws two furrows on the manure, and lets it lie till planting time. At planting time he breaks out the middle, which makes his ridges fresh again. But when he plants land *not* manured, he runs no center furrow to bed on, but simply laps two furrows on an unbroken ridge, which he leaves hard; this he does early in the spring, and, at planting time, breaks out the middles, as he does with land manured.

His planting time is from the fourth to the tenth of April, which he does by making a slight furrow on the ridge with a small gofer. Then, after the seed are wet and rolled in ashes, he has them dropped in the furrow, at the rate of two bushels to the acre, covers with a board, having a notch cut in the center, and don't strike off.

So soon as the cotton is up, so that you can see generally along the row, he runs around it with a plow, with a board so fixed as to throw the dirt away from the young cotton, and let the sun into the roots. Then, so soon as the third leaf can be seen in places, he begins to hoe to a stand, and lets all other farm business wait till he gets his whole crop to a stand.

The third leaf is usually seen between the tenth and fifteenth of May, and by the last of May he has it all brought to a stand. If this be done by the last of May he thinks his crop pretty well made.

Thinning to a stand, he means to bring it all to one stock in a place, ten inches apart on poor land, fifteen inches on better, and twenty inches on rich or manured land. He is very particular to leave no more than one stalk in a place.

The first hoeing commences with the appearance of the third leaf, which generally will be about two weeks after the running round. This hoeing should leave no grass. In about a week after the hoes start, the plows should follow, and, with a mold board, throw about as much earth to the cotton as the hoes have taken away. Then the buzzard follows and bursts out the middles. He continues working in the same way throughout the crop, that is, the hoes going before and the plows following, and lays by by the middle or 20th of July. He plants the white seed.

3. HOW COTTON SHOULD BE PACKED.

The Savannah Chamber of Commerce has issued the following circular to planters:

SAVANNAH, April, 1850.

The attention of the Chamber of Commerce having been called to the condition of the rope and bagging, as well as to the form of packages in which the cotton is received at this port, a committee was appointed to prepare the following suggestions:

As the price, which the buyers of cotton are empowered to pay for the article, must depend upon its cost of delivery at the consuming markets, and as that cost must depend upon the rate of freight, order, loss in weight, &c., it is important that cotton should be packed so as to go forward at the cheapest possible freight, and be landed in a sound condition. Now nearly all the cotton is compressed before shipment; and, as the more weight a ship can carry the lower the freight, the planter derives the full benefit of the reduction.

Uniformity of package, and strength of rope and bagging, are great requisites in its being reduced to the smallest possible compass. Jute rope is almost useless to put on the bags again after pressing, and the buyer, or shipper, of the cotton, must pay extra for new ropes. Thin bagging bursts under pressure, and, in such cases, the bales must be covered anew. End packed bales will not bear compressing, as the cotton is forced out at the ends, and the package is not compressed, but only elongated.

The consequence is, that bales, in light bagging, or bound with jute, grass or bark rope, or end-packed, are likely to be rejected or passed over by the buyer, particularly in a dull and declining market, or taken only at a disproportionate reduction in price, as a compensation for the expense and trouble of them. For these reasons, it is manifestly the interest of the planters to use only heavy bagging, and strong hempen rope, and a screw or lever press, with a box of about five feet four inches long, and about twenty inches wide, and to put on not less than five bands, though six would be preferable. These suggestions are the result of experience and observation, and are respectfully offered as intimately connected with the true interests of the planter, and calculated to do what all should be happy and proud to accomplish, viz.: to raise the standard of character of Georgia cotton in whatsoever market it may show itself.

It is a fit occasion to congratulate and compliment our planting friends on what they have accomplished, in an almost incredibly short time, in changing their packing from round to square bales, improving the quality of their cotton, and almost entirely doing away the reproach, so often made against round bales, of being falsely packed.

ROBERT HABERSHAM,
Pres't of the Sav'h Cham'r of Com.

4. CULTIVATION OF MADDER.

FROM the report of the Executive Committee of the New York State Agricultural Society, we extract the following:

T. S. Dunnell, Esq., of Providence, writes in relation to the cultivation of madder. I feel that the cultivation of madder directly concerns the agriculturists of our country; the annual consumption of which, in the United States, bids fair, at no very distant day, to rival that of France or Great Britain.

A few facts will convince you that our agriculturists cannot give too much, or too prompt, attention to the cultivation of this invaluable tinctorial root.

France is the principal madder growing country, although Holland and the Levant produce large quantities. The late revolution in France, and other causes, not only stopped the consumption, but also the production, of madder. No madder was planted. Hence it has become extremely scarce. Meantime, order has been restored, and not only in France and England, but also in this country, a more prosperous state of affairs has started all the establishments into operation again. The consumption of madder has suddenly doubled, and the prices, which before ranged from nine to ten cents per pound, now average from thirteen to sixteen, and must go higher. Under these circumstances madder cannot fail to be a most profitable crop—much more so than tobacco, I should suppose. There is no soil in France comparable to some of ours for fertility, and no climate in France which cannot be found within our borders. I learn that madder of a first rate quality is now cultivated in small quantities, for domestic purposes, on the plantations of Virginia and Kentucky (in Ohio also, in considerable quantities, and to some extent in this State, in a few localities).

The experiment is now so certain to succeed, if taken hold of with spirit and determination, that there ought to be twenty thousand acres put under cultivation immediately, so that we may not only keep at home the immense sums which are now going abroad for this, our principal dyeing material, but also, in a few years, be able to supply Great Britain and Germany, and even France herself, with madder, as well as with wheat, corn and tobacco.

In the Patent Office Report of 1847, an article on the cultivation of madder, by M. B. Bateham, editor of the Ohio Cultivator, gives the method of cultivation, the process, &c. It takes three years before the crop is ready to be gathered. Mr. Joseph Swift, near Birmingham, Ohio, raised two thousand pounds per acre, for which he received fifteen cents per pound,..................$300

The expense of working the land for the three years,.......	75
Use of land, $4 a year,................................	16
Grinding and packing,..................................	9=100
	$200

Mr. Smith believes that the yield per acre may be increased to three thousand pounds per acre.

The soil best adapted to the growth of madder is river bottom land, a deep rich loam with a large portion of vegetable matter, not wet or liable to be overflowed. He also thinks that soils containing lime will produce a better quality of madder than such as are destitute of lime. The land should be free as possible from grass or weeds, stones, &c., and if cultivated in hoed crops for a year or two previous, all the better. [See Patent Office Report, 1847, p. 456.]

The above communication referred to next board of officers, with a recommendation that a premium be offered for the cultivation of madder.

5. THE INTEREST OF AGRICULTURE.

The importance of the agricultural interest of every country in the world has been frequently discussed. Agriculture is the first, the greatest, and the most important of all other persuits. It is the source, the fountain, which supplies the streams of manufactures and commerce with material. Without it, all other interests would virtually cease. The nececessity, then, of aiding and promoting this great foundation of our national wealth must be apparent to all. The Washington Union, of a late date, in an article comparing the importance of agriculture with other interests, says:

"In every country agriculture is the great and transcendent interest, employing more capital, more persons, and sustaining more than all other interests combined. It is even so in Great Britain, where it appears, from a synoptical table added to "Sparkman's Analysis of the Occupations of the People," that the following are the amounts of capital employed in the various interests of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland:

In Agriculture,	**£2,000,000,000**	**Hose,**	**1,000,000**
In Manufactures, viz.,	**24,500,000**	**All other articles,**	**23,000,000**
Cotton,	**16,500,000**		
Woolen,	**7,000,000**		**78,000,000**
Linen,	**4,000,000**		
Silk,	**4,000,000**	**Mining interest,**	**28,723,000**
Lace,	**2,000,000**	**Shipping interest,**	**86,372,210**

Thus, in the United Kingdom even, agriculture is the great and paramount interest. It is in this, and in every other country inhabited by civilized man. It has been so from the beginning of time, and will be until it shall be no more. Agriculture, in every country, is the substratum and foundation of its wealth, commerce and power. It was so with nations of ancient times, and in the medieval age of the world, and it is so now.

6. SUGAR—ITS PRODUCTION AND HISTORY.

We have, during the last four years, presented to the readers of the Commercial Review a great variety of papers, more or less elaborate, upon the culture, manufacture, consumption, trade, etc., of sugar, viewed in every point of view, and from the best informed and accurate sources, at home or abroad. Nearly every month we have added to the fullness and copiousness of these investigations, until the result has become almost complete, in every particular, and requires nothing more than to follow the industry, in all its agricultural or manufacturing ameliorations, imparted by the hand of skill, or science, in the future. We shall perform this work with minuteness, and show the gradual progress which the staple is making in the different sections of the Union, as well as in the world at large. In particular, we would call attention to Mr. Benjamin's paper, in our first volume, on the culture and manufacture of sugar, and also to Mr. Forstalls, Mr. Valcour, Aimes and others, in our third and fourth volumes; the re-publication, complete, of Dr. Evans's great work upon sugar, in our sixth volume, and the process of Melsens, a most important document, in our sixth and eighth volumes.

Every day brings new evidences of the extension of the sugar culture in our country. In those parishes of Louisiana which have, hitherto, been exclusively *cotton*, the substitution of this staple is becoming rapid, and can only be checked by a rise in the value of its rival. Texas, with her abundant sugar lands, has, already, upward of forty estates in operation, and produced, last year, over ten thousand hhds. The culture is reviving in Florida, and being adopted, on a small scale, in parts of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi. Doubtless, the insecurity of the lands, upon the Mississippi, will exercise an adverse influence. We have seen intelligent gentlemen, from the vicinities of Vera Cruz, who state that great improvements are taking place in the Mexican crops, and Mr. Poinsett stated, some months ago, in our Review, that, under a better government, the competition, from this source, would be very considerable. The crop in the British West Indies continues to decline, while, in the Spanish colonies, the reverse is the case. Should Cuba become independent, or be attached to the United States, it is not improbable her present crop would be doubled. It is now more than twice that of Louisiana. The consumption of sugar, all the world over, is increasing, and is stimulated by greater cheapness, growing out of rapid improvements in the culture and manufacture. In the result, the sugar from cane, from its superiority and economy, will drive out the competition of that from the beet and other plants. For the crop of Cuba, and of the world, see the number of Review for June, and table in the present number.

The Western Democrat, at Alexandria, Louisiana, is publishing a series of papers upon the extension of sugar culture in the parish of Rapides, which are very interesting. This is a new epoch in the history of the staple. It appears that, at a very early period, attempts were made near Natchitoches, but without success. In 1824 Timothy Flint suggested the sugar culture in this region. In 1829 General Thomas made the experiment, and continued it four years, producing, at last, three hundred and three hhds. F. A. Bynum, George Gordon, John

G. Young and William Dunwoody, also attempted it. An extraordinary frost, the low price of sugar and inflation of cotton—the deficiency of machinery rendering slow the process of manufacture—attended to discourage, and, at last, to put an end to the experiments. Things so remained until 1845, when E. H. Flint set the ball again in motion. He built a splendid sugar house, made one hundred and sixty hhds., and seed for two hundred acres in 1847. Out of this seed, &c., the crop was five hundred and forty-one hhds., and in 1848, seven hundred and sixty-four hhds. That of 1849 was lost by the overflow. The average yield was two hhds. an acre for plant cane, and one hhd. for rattoons. This gentleman deserves the highest honor for his liberality and public spirit. The total crop of Rapides, last year, was seven thousand nine hundred and twenty-eight hhds., made by the following persons: Calhoun, Compton, Wilson, Bullard, Bryce, Seip, Archinard, Flint, Overton & Prescott, Baillio, Williams, Flower, Moore, Burgess, Mulholland, Carnal, Martin, Clarke, Waters, Wells, Scott, Crouch, Pearce, Tanner, Stafford, Cheney, Chambers, Gould & Andebert, Carlin, Lambeth & Maddox, Bennett. There are eleven other planters who will make sugar next year, viz.: Williams, Texhada, Gordon, Bonner, Chambers, Linton, Chase & Mathews, Pearce, Curiton, Cheney, Wright. Four planters will produce the year after, viz.: Blanchard, Linton & Brothers, Pearce & Stewart, Taylor.

We have before us the admirable compilation, made by Mr. Champomier, of the sugar crop of Louisiana in 1849–50. It is a beautiful pamphlet, printed at The office of our friends of the New Orleans Price Current. The price is five dollars, which, when one considers the immense pains and labor required, the enormous expense and small sale, will appear very reasonable. Mr Champomier deserves every success, and should be rewarded by the support of the whole planting interest. His past labors have been appreciated at Washington.

Without interfering with the copy-right of this pamphlet, but rather to influence its extension and sale, we will digest a few particulars, showing its character, &c., having, in our last number, extracted from the Bulletin some of its statistics.

The sugar cane is cultivated on both banks of the Mississippi, from fifty-seven miles below New Orleans to nearly one hundred and ninety miles above; on Red river, including Rapides and Avoyelles, the last of which produced, last year, 3,874 hhds; on bayous La Fourche and tributaries, bayou Terrebonne, Little and Great Caillou, bayou Black, Teché, Salé, Atchafalaya and tributaries, Berwick bay, bayou Bœuf; bayou Vermilion; the prairies of St. Martin, Vermilion, etc.; Saint Landry, Calcasieu, bayou Courtableau, Toulouse, etc., etc. Whole number of sugar parishes, 24; number of sugar houses, 1,536; number by steam, 865; the rest by horse. Crop 1849–50, 247,923 hhds., or 269,769,000 lbs., including cistern bottoms, used by the refiners. This, at an average of 3½ cents, amounts to $9,441,915; the quantity of molasses was 12,000,000 gallons, at 20, which amounts to $2,400,000; total, $11,841,915, or an average to each of the 1,455 *working* sugar houses of $8,148. It is impossible to give the number of slaves employed, though the reader will find, in vol. vi, page 456, of the Review, some interesting calculations in this particular. Sixty-two new plantations will produce next year, and nineteen the year after. This latter number will, no doubt, be much increased. The overflow on the Mississippi and Red rivers, last year, shortened the crop near 20,000 hhds., and will be greatly felt for several years to come. St. Mary's produced the largest number of hhds.—24,000 and over.

We cordially recommend Mr. Champomier's pamphlet to every reader of the Review, and express our high indebtedness to him for a copy, and for the privilege of making the above general statements upon his authority. The planters and merchants of Louisiana should take pride in supporting an annual publication so valuable. We extract, in conclusion, his instructive remarks, upon the contribution, made by Louisiana, to the industry of the nation:

"There have been put up, in this State, since 1846, including the present year, not less than 355 sugar mills and engines, furnished by the following foundries, viz.: Cincinnati foundries—J. Nyles & Co. 199, James Goodloe & Co. 45, David Grifye 37; Pittsburgh foundries—Arthur Armstrong & Co. 3, Jackson, Whiteman & Co. 32. Knapp & Totton 2—besides vacuum apparatus this latter firm has furnished already, and are now under contract, for the coming crop, for 8 or 10, perhaps more; Richmond (Va.) foundry—J. R. Anderson, proprietor, 7; Baltimore (Md.) foundry—Wells & Miller, proprietors, 4; Louisville (Ky.) foundry—James Curry, proprietor, 3; Belleville iron works (Algiers, La.) 2; Phenix foundry, Gretna—Silvester Bennett, proprietor, 6; Leeds & Co., New Orleans, 10; the Novelty Iron Works, of New York—5 sugar mills and engines, 6 Durone's patent copper condensers, a good number of vacuum pans, and a considerable quantity of Stillman's patent clarifiers, evaporating and granulating pans. Philadelphia has furnished, and keeps furnishing, apparatus, which I have lost sight of, making an aggregate of 355 mills and engines, of which, at least, 120 have replaced old ones. A great many horse-power mills have been made by the above named foundries, more particularly by Goodloe, Grifye, and S. Bennett. However, the latter, as is the case with our local foundries, made but little new work, comparatively speaking; the repairs they have to make every season, more particularly during grinding, when breakage so frequently occurs to the machinery, keeps them at work day and night."

We append from an able English writer, the following historical sketch of sugar, which the reader will observe was written as long ago as 1832 or 1833; but it can readily be completed to date by inspection of the eight published volumes of our Review:

HISTORICAL NOTICE OF SUGAR.

The history of sugar is involved in a great deal of obscurity. It was very imperfectly known by the Greeks and Romans. Theophrastus, who lived about three hundred and twenty years before the Christian era, the first writer whose works have come down to us, by whom it is mentioned, calls it a sort of "honey extracted from canes or reeds." Strabo states, on the authority of Nearchus, Alexander's admiral, that "reeds in India yield honey without bees." And Seneca, who was put to death in the sixty-fifth year of the Christian era, alludes (Epis. 84) to the sugar cane in a manner which shows that he knew next to nothing of sugar, and absolutely nothing of the manner in which it is prepared and obtained from the cane.

Of the ancients, Dioscorides and Pliny have given the most precise description of sugar. The former says, it is "a sort of concreted honey, found upon canes, in India, and Arabia Felix; it is in consistence like salt, and is, like it, brittle between the teeth." And Pliny describes it as "honey collected from canes, like a gum, white and brittle between the teeth; the largest is of the size of a hazel nut; it is used in medicine only." (*Saccharum et Arabia fert, sed laudatius India; est autem mel in arundinibus collectum, gummium modo candidum, dentibus fragile, amplissimum nucis avellanæ magnitudine, ad medicinal tantum usum —Lib. xii, c.* 8.)

It is evident, from these statements, that the knowledge of the Greeks and Romans, with respect to the mode of obtaining sugar, was singularly imperfect. They appear to have thought that it was found adhering to the cane, or that it issued from it in the state of juice, and then concreted like gum. Indeed, Lucan expressly alludes to Indians near the Ganges:

Quinque bibunt tenera dulces ab arundine succos.—Lib. iii, l., 237.

But these statements are evidently without foundation. Sugar cannot be obtained from the cane without the aid of art. It is never found native. Instead of flowing from the plant, it must be forcibly expressed, and then subjected to a variety of processes.

Dr. Mosely conjectures, apparently with much probability, that the sugar described by Pliny and Dioscorides, as being made use of at Rome, was sugar candy obtained from China. This, indeed, is the only sort of sugar to which their descriptions will at all apply. And it would seem that the mode of preparing sugar candy has been understood and practiced in China from a very remote antiquity; and that large quantities of it have been in all ages exported to India, whence, it is most probable, small quantities found their way to Rome.—(*Treatise on Sugar, 2d edit., p.* 66–71. This, as well as Dr. Moseley's treatise on coffee, is a very learned and able work.)

Europe seems to be indebted to the Saracens, not only for the first considerable supplies of sugar, but for the earliest example of its manufacture. Having, in the course of the ninth century, conquered Rhodes, Cyprus, Sicily and Crete, the Saracens introduced into them the sugar cane, with the cultivation and preparation of which they were familiar. It is mentioned, by the Venetian historians, that their countrymen imported, in the twelfth century, sugar from Sicily, at a cheaper rate than they could import it from Egypt.—(*Essai de l'Historie du Commerce de Venise, p.* 100.) The Crusades tended to spread a taste for sugar throughout the western world; but there can be no doubt that it was cultivated, as now stated, in modern Europe, antecedently to the era of the Crusades; and that it was also previously imported by the Venetians, Amalphitans, and others, who carried on a commercial intercourse, from a very remote epoch, with Alexandria and other cities in the Levant. It was certainly imported into Venice in 996.—(See the Essai, &c., p. 70.) The art of refining sugar, and making what is called loaf sugar, is a modern European invention, the discovery of a Venetian about the end of the fifteenth, or the beginning of the sixteenth, century.—(Mosely, p. 66.)

The Saracens introduced the cultivation of the sugar cane into Spain soon after they obtained a footing in that country. The first plantations were at Valencia; but they were afterward extended to Granada and Murcia. Mr. Thomas Willoughby, who traveled over a great part of Spain in 1664, has given an interesting account of the state of the Spanish sugar plantations, and of the mode of manufacturing the sugar.

Plants of the sugar cane were carried by the Spaniards and Portuguese to the Canary Island and Madeira, in the early part of the fifteenth century; and it has been asserted by many, that these islands furnished the first plants of the sugar cane that ever grew in America.

But though it is sufficiently established, that the Spaniards early conveyed plants of the sugar cane to the new world, there can be no doubt, notwithstanding Humbolt seems to incline to the opposite opinion (Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne.—Liv. iv, c. 10), that this was a work of supererogation, and that the cane was indigenous, both to the American continent and island. It was not for the plant itself, which flourished spontaneously in many parts when it was discovered by Columbus, but for the secret of making sugar from it, that the New World is indebted to the Spaniards and Portuguese, and these to the nations of the East.—(See Lafitau *Moeurs* des Sauvages, tome ii, p. 150; Edwards's West Indies, vol. ii, p. 238.)

Barbadoes is the oldest settlement of the English in the West Indies. They took possession of it in 1627, and so early as 1646 began to export sugar. In 1676, the trade of Barbadoes is said to have attained its maximum, being then capable of employing four hundred sail of vessels, averaging one hundred and fifty tons burden.

Jamaica was discovered by Columbus, in his second voyage, and was first occupied by the Spaniards. It was wrested from them by an expedition sent against it by Cromwell in 1656; and has since continued in our possession, forming by far the most valuable of our West Indian colonies. At the time when it was conquered, there were only three small sugar plantations upon it. But, in consequence of the influx of English settlers from Barbadoes and the mother country, fresh plantations were speedily formed, and continued rapidly to increase.

The sugar cane is said to have been first cultivated in St. Domingo, or Hayti, in 1506. It succeeded better there than in any other of the West Indian Islands. Peter Martyr, in a work published in 1530, states, that, in 1518, there were twenty-eight sugar works in St. Domingo established by the Spainiards. "It is marvelous," says he, "to consider how all things increase and prosper in the island. There are now twenty-eight sugar presses, wherewith great plenty of sugar is made. The canes or reeds wherein the sugar groweth are bigger and higher than in any other place; and are as big as a man's wrist, and higher than the stature of a man by the half. This is more wonderful, that whereas, in Valencia in Spain, where a great quantity of sugar is made yearly, whensoever they apply themselves to the great increase thereof, yet doth every root bring forth not past five or six, or at most seven, of these reeds; whereas, in St. Domingo, one root beareth twenty, and oftentimes 30."—*Eng. trans.* p. 172.

Sugar from St. Domingo formed, for a very long period, the principal part of the European supplies. Previously to its devastation, in 1790, no fewer than sixty-five thousand tons of sugar were exported from the French portion of the island.

SOURCES FROM WHENCE THE SUPPLY OF SUGAR IS DERIVED.—The West Indies, Brazil, Surinam, Java, Mauritius, Bengal, Siam, the Isle de Bourbon and the Philippines, are the principal sources whence the supplies required for the European and American markets are derived. The average quantities exported from these countries during each of the three years ending with 1833, were nearly as follows:

	Tons.
British West Indies, including Demerara and Berbice,	190,000
Mauritius,	30,000
Bengal, Isle de Bourbon, Java, Siam Philippines, &c.,	60,000
Cuba and Porto Rico,	110,000
French, Dutch and Danish West Indies,	95,000
Brazil,	75,000
	560,000

Loaf or lump sugar is unknown in the East—sugar candy being the only species of refined sugar that is made use of in India, China, &c. The manufacture of sugar candy is carried on in Hindoostan, but the process is extremely rude and imperfect. In China, however, it is manufactured in a very superior manner, and large quantities are exported. When of the best description, it is in large, white crystals, and is a very beautiful article. Two sorts of sugar candy are met with at Canton, viz.: Chinchew and Canton—the former being the produce of the province of Fokien, and the latter, as its name implies, of that of Canton. The Chinchew is by far the best, and is about fifty per cent. dearer than the other. Chinese sugar candy is consumed, to the almost total exclusion of any other species of sugar, by the Europeans, at the different settlements throughout the East. There were exported from Canton, in 1831–32, by British ships, 32,279 piculs (38,427 cwt.) of sugar candy, valued at $243,000, and 60,627 piculs (72,175 cwt.) of clayed sugar, valued at $318,256; and, during the previous year, the exports were about fifty per cent. greater (see volume i, page 302–303). The exports by the American are also considerable. At an average, the exports of sugar from Canton may be taken at from six to ten thousand tons; but of this only a small quantity finds its way to Europe. The exports from Siam and Cochin-China are estimated at about twelve thousand five hundred tons.

CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN EUROPE, &c.—Mr. Cook gives the following table of the imports of sugar into France, and the principal continental ports, in 1831, 1832 and 1833, and of the stock on hand on the 31st of December of each of these years:

	IMPORTS.			STOCK 31ST OF DECEMBER.		
	1831. *Tons.*	1832. *Tons.*	1833. *Tons.*	1831. *Tons.*	1832. *Tons.*	1833. *Tons.*
France,	97,450	82,000	79,500	25,870	9,350	10,450
Trieste,	17,950	22,400	13,800	6,900	11,900	6,840
Genoa,	9,500	10,500	6,800	1,500	2,200	2,180
Antwerp,	5,240	8,780	12,800	2,000	2,000	5,100
Rotterdam,	10,700	11,600	8,650	1,800	3,900	3,350
Amsterdam,	18,370	22,380	20,100	2,200	3,400	5,300
Hamburgh,	38,800	37,930	30,000	9,000	13,400	9,820
Bremen,	12,380	12,500	7,350	3,230	5,800	3,550
Copenhagen,	5,350	5,850	5,560	800	2,370	1,830
Petersburgh,	11,170	33,100	18,500	8,840	11,660	15,600
	226,910	237,040	203,060	61,740	65,980	64,020

This table does not, however, give the imports into many of the ports of the Peninsula; but the consumption of Spain, only, has been estimated, apparently on good grounds, by Montveran (Essai de Statistique sur les Colonies, page 92), at 45,000,000 kilog. (41,050 tons). This may appear large for a country in the situation of Spain, but the quantity is deduced from comparing the imports with the exports; and it is explained partly by the moderation of the duties, and partly by the large consumption of cocoa, and other articles that require a corresponding consumption of sugar. Mr. Cook's table also omits the imports into Leghorn, Naples, Palermo, and other Italian ports. Neither does it give those into Stettin, Konigsberg, Riga, Stockholm, Gottenburgh. It is, besides, very difficult, owing to transhipments from one place to another, accurately to estimate the real amount of the imports. On the whole, however, we believe that we shall be within the mark, if we estimate those for the whole continent at from 285,000 to 310,000 tons, including what is sent from England.

The following table, compiled from the best authorities, exhibits the total consumption of colonial and foreign sugars in France, at different periods, since 1788, with the population, and the average consumption of each individual (see Moutveran, Essai de Statistique, page 96, and the authorities there referred to):

Years.	Consumption.	Population.	Individual Consum'n.
1788,	21,300,000 kilog.	23,000,000	.906 kilog.
1801,	25,200,000 "	31,000,000	.813 "
1812,	16,000,000 "	43,000,000	.372 " *
1816 to 1819, average,	36,000,000 "	30,000,000	1.200 "
1819-1822,	47,000,000 "	30,833,000	1.566 "
1822-1824,	47,250,000 "	31,103,000	1.513 "
1824-1825,	55,750,000 "	31,280,000	1.782 "
1826-1827,	62,500,000 "	31,625,000	1.976 "
1830,	67,250,000 "	31,845,000	2.126 "

This, however, is independent of the consumption of indigenous sugar, and of the sugar introduced by the contraband trade, both of which are very considerable. The entire consumption of all sorts of sugar in France, in 1832—including from 8,000,000 to 9,000,0 0 kilog. of beet-root sugar, and allowing for the quantity fraudulently introduced, may be estimated at about 88,000,000 kilog., or 193,000,000 lbs.; which, taking the population at 32,000,000, gives an average consumption of six pounds to each individual—being about one-fourth part of the consumption of each individual in Great Britain! This extraordinary discrepancy is no doubt ascribable to various causes: partly to the greater poverty of the mass of the French people; partly to their smaller consumption of tea, coffee, punch, and other articles that occasion a large consumption of sugar; and partly and principally, perhaps, to the oppressive duties with which foreign sugars are loaded, on their being taken into France for home consumption.

The United States consume from 70,000 to 80,000 tons; but of these from 30,000 to 40,000 tons are produced in Louisiana.

About 170,000 tons of sugar are retained for home consumption in Great Britain, and 17,000 tons in Ireland, exclusive of about 12,000 tons of bastard, or inferior sugar, obtained by the boiling of molasses; and exclusive, also, of the refuse sugar and treacle remaining after the process of refining.

On the whole, therefore, we believe we may estimate the aggregate consumption of the continent, and of the British islands, at about 500,000 tons a year; to which if we add the aggregate consumption of the United States, Turkey, &c., the aggregate will be nearly equivalent to the supply. The demand is rapidly increasing in most countries; but, as the power to produce sugar is almost illimitable, no permanent rise of prices need be looked for.

Taking the price of sugar at the low rate of £1 4*s*. a cwt., or £24 a ton, the prime cost of the article to the people of Europe will be £12,000,000; to which adding 75 per cent. for duty, its total cost will be £21,000,000. This is sufficient to prove the paramount importance of the trade in this article. Exclusive, however, of sugar, the other products of the cane—as rum, molasses, treacle, &c. are of very great value. The revenue derived by the British treasury, from rum only, amounts to nearly £1,600,000 a year.

PROGRESSIVE CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN GREAT BRITAIN.—We are not aware that there are any authentic accounts with respect to the precise period when sugar first began to be used in England. It was, however, imported, in small quantities, by the Venetians and Genoese, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries;† but honey was then, and long after, the principal ingredient employed in sweetening liquors and dishes. Even in the early part of the seventeenth century, the quantity of sugar imported was very inconsiderable, and it was made use of only in the houses of the rich and great. It was not till the latter part of the century, when coffee and tea began to be introduced, that sugar came into general demand. In 1700, the quantity consumed was about 10,000 tons, or 22,000,000 lbs. At this moment, the consumption has increased (bastards included) to above 180,000 tons, or more than 400,000,000 lbs.; so that sugar forms not only one of the principal articles of importation and sources of revenue, but an important necessary of life.

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* Continental system and empire.

† In Marin's *Storia del Commercio de' Veneziani* (vol. v, page 306), there is an account of a shipment made at Venice for England, in 1319, of 100,000 lbs. of sugar, and 10,000 lbs. of sugar candy. The sugar is said to have been brought from the Levant.

Great, however, as the increase in the use of sugar has certainly been, it may, we think, be easily shown, that the demand for it is still very far below its natural limit; and that, were the existing duties on this article reduced, and the trade placed on a proper footing, its consumption, and the revenue derived from it, would be greatly increased.

During the first half of last century, the consumption of sugar increased five fold, and amounted, as already stated,

	Tons.	*Pounds.*		*Tons.*	*Pounds.*
In 1700, to	10,000	or 22,000,000	In 1754, to	53,270	or 119,320,000
In 1710, to	14,000	or 31,300,000	In 1770–1775, to	72,500 (average)	or 162,500,000
In 1734, to	42,000	or 94,080,000	In 1786–1719, to	81,000	or 181,500,000

In the reign of Queen Anne, the duty on sugar amounted to 3*s*. 5*d*. per cwt. Small additions were made to it in the reign of George II; but, in 1780, it was only 6*s*. 8*d*. In 1781, a considerable addition was made to the previous duty, and, in 1787, it was as high as 12*s*. 4*d*. In 1791, it was raised to 15*s*.; and, while its extensive and increasing consumption pointed it out as an article well fitted to augment the public revenue, the pressure on the public finances, caused by the French war, occasioned its being loaded with duties, which, though they yielded a large return, would, there is good reason to think, have been more productive, had they been lower. In 1797, the duty was raised to 17*s*. 6*d*.; two years afterward, it was raised to 20*s*.; and, by successive augmentations in 1803, 1804 and 1806, it was raised to 3 *s*.; but, in the last mentioned year, it was enacted, that, in the event of the market price of sugar in bond, or exclusive of the duty, being, for the four months previous to the 5th of January, the 5th of May or the 5th of September, below 49*s*. a cwt., the lords of the treasury might remit 1*s*. a cwt. of the duty; that, if the prices were below 48*s*., they might remit 2*s*.; and, if below 47*s*., they might remit 3*s*., which was the greatest reduction that could be made. In 1826, the duty was declared to be constant at 27*s*., without regard to price; but it was reduced, in 1830, to 24*s*. on West India sugar, and to 22*s*. on East India sugar.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1. SOUTHERN GRANITE.—No. 2.*

BY A CHARLESTON WORKING-MAN.

True granite is composed of three substances, each of granular structure, and united apparently without the aid of any intermediate matter or cement. These substances are *quartz*, *feldspar* and *mica*, each of these being a compound. They are "the type," says Tuomey, "of this class of rocks." But the species of rocks known to geologists as granite, vary materially in their constituent parts, their formation and color. "The infinite variety of proportions (see Maj. Gen. Sir John Burgoine's treatise on blasting and quarrying in which these several elements are united in the mass, occasions the great diversities of color and appearance of the several kinds of granite, and also affects, in a much more important manner, the enduring characteristics of this valuable material. Thus its color varies from a light gray to a dark tint closely approaching black, and is to be found of all shades of red and many green. Instead of mica, another substance, called *hornblende*, is found in some granites: hornblende is a dark, crystalline substance, composed of flint, alumina and magnesia, besides a large proportion of the black oxyd of iron. Granites in which hornblende exists are sometimes called *syenite*, having been first found in the island of Syene in Egypt." "Syenite (see Shaw's Operative Masonry) is related to granite, and resembles it in its general characters. It is somewhat harder than granite, and more difficult to chisel. The Bunker Hill monument consists of this stone. It is found at several places near Boston, and is commonly called the Quincy stone. It is the presence of hornblende as a constituent part which distinguishes this rock from granite." The presence, in undue proportion, of hornblende, detracts from the durability of the stone. Professor Tuomey, in alluding to a certain part of Newberry district, remarks that "the deep ravines in the hill-sides, which were scooped out by the surface water, and the peculiarly broken character of this portion of the district, attest the readiness with which rocks, abounding in hornblende, disintegrate and suffer by denudation from atmospheric causes." "Although all granites (says Burgoine) are similar in structure, the difference in the proportions of its constituent substances occasions great difference in its enduring and useful properties. Some varieties are exceedingly friable and liable to decomposition." We notice in a volume of the transactions of the Institute of Civil Engineers, in England, some remarks respecting the syenite of Guernsey, in which allusion is made to the interior columns of Saint Peter's Port Church, the component parts of which have become "decomposed and their adhesion destroyed." "Hornblende, in most common form (says Tuomey), presents a confused crystalline structure, and dark green color, approaching black.

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* Number 1, of these papers, was published in February Number, Vol. viii, 1850, page 169.

The rocks composed of this mineral are exceedingly tough, and yield with difficulty to the hammer—a fact known to the aborigines of the country, who used them as the principal material in the construction of their tomahawks and other instruments requiring much strength. Where hornblende takes the place "of the mica the rock is called syenite, and where mica is also present with the hornblende it is called syenitic granite." Thus it will be perceived that the syenite of Quincy is not only much more difficult to be wrought than the true granites which abound in South Carolina, but is deficient in those lasting qualities which are of the first importance in the erection of an expensive edifice.

By far the larger proportion of the rock formation in South Carolina is of the kind called *gneiss*. "This rock (says Shaw), like granite, is composed of feldspar, quartz and mica. But there is, in gneiss, less feldspar and more mica than in granite; but even in this substance the feldspar appears in many cases to be the predominant ingredient. Its structure is always more or less distinctly slaty when viewed in the mass, although individual layers, composed chiefly of feldspar and quartz, may possess a granular structure. Gneiss, like granite, never embraces any petrifactions, and is always a primitive rock. This rock assumes sometimes a granular structure, and passes, by imperceptible shades, into granite." "Gneiss (says Tuomey) frequently loses its slaty structure, and then it can scarcely be distinguished from granite; and hence the name gneissoid granite. Table rock, in Pickens district, is a magnificent example of the occurrence of gneiss in beds of vast thickness."

Having thus alluded to the rocks kindred to granite, we now return to a more specific consideration of the varieties of true granite. "It is," says Tuomey, "either coarse or fine, generally depending upon the quantity of feldspar. It has various names, derived from the proportions and mode of aggregation of its constituent minerals: it is called *micaceous*, *feldspathic* or *quartzose*, as mica, feldspar, or quartz may predominate. *Porphyritic granite* has the feldspar disseminated through the whole in large crystals, which are often of a different color from the rest of the mass, and hence the striking appearance of some varieties of this rock." He also mentions *graphic granite*, *albite granite* and *pho*[illegible], so called respectively from their distinctive qualities and appearances. "The *Monticello granite* (of Fairfield), with base of white feldspar, has black spots so disposed as to give the rock the appearance of marbled paper." We find allusion made by other writers to *globular granite*, composed of large globular [illegible] concretions, which are sometimes several feet in diameter; to *ser-*

pruline granite, which is distinguished by the variety and richness of its colors; and Professor Tuomey mentions the *crystalline granite,* which may be found on Twelve Mile Creek, near Lexington, and elsewhere in the State. "The granite of Kershaw is noted for its great beauty and remarkable crystalline structure." "The predominant color," says Shaw, "of granite usually depends on that of the feldspar, which may be white or gray, sometimes with a shade of red, yellow, blue or green, and sometimes it is flesh red."

The quartz may be grayish white or gray, sometimes very dark; but it is usually vitreous and translucent. The mica may be black, brown, gray, silver, white, yellowish or violet. "At the factory, near Columbia," says Tuomey, "broad veins of *red granite* resembling the Egyptian variety, penetrate the rock." "The shaft of Pompey's pillar in Egypt," says Shaw, "which is sixty feet high, and of a single piece, is said to be of the red granite, but is possibly syenite." "In the eastern part of the United States, *white granite* is found in various places, and is now introduced into building." With these hints respecting the general nature, variety and adaptation to building purposes, of the various species of rocks generally recognized in utilitarian parlance as granite, we proceed to indicate the particular kinds to be found in this State, located at such points as may render them available for the purposes of commerce. Such persons as may desire to pursue the inquiries we have suggested in this connection, will be much interested and instructed by carefully examining such portions of the works already alluded to as treat of granite, as also the Encyclopedia Americana, Rees's and the Penny Cyclopedias, the Dictionaries of Nicholson and of Gregory, and Silliman's Journal, which contain much useful information respecting granite and the quarrying of it, and nearly all of which are within the reach of most readers. "Graniteville," says Tuomey, "on Horse Creek, is the most southern locality of granite in the State." But Horse Creek, which can hardly be regarded as navigable for the granite trade, empties into the Savannah river, and, if available, can only be so for conveying it to consumers on that river; and Graniteville being more than a mile from the nearest point on the railroad, and this above the inclined plane at Aiken, the ascent of which with heavily loaded granite cars would be difficult, can only embrace that mode of conveyance by building a connecting road of similar length. The granite there is thus described by Professor Tuomey: "It is a hard, compact, blueish rock, composed of quartz and feldspar, with very little mica, the feldspar generally predominating. On the right bank of the creek it is much disintegrated; the feldspar is white, and in a state of decomposition, and even where the rock is solid it seems to have lost its peculiar luster." In relation to Edgefield District he remarks: "For the most part the granite is only seen where the lower tertiary beds are removed, as on Horse Creek, and again on Cloud's Creek. The granite of this latter locality is coarse and crystalline, with black mica. It appears on the surface, and is, in every case, much weathered." The next most southern locality of granite is the vicinity of the town of Columbia. A glance at the geological map of the State will show that on the left bank of the Broad river, extending many miles above Columbia, and of the Congaree to about an equal distance below the junction of the Saluda, as also on the right bank of the Congaree below the junction of the Saluda—this latter being in the District of Lexington—an immense body of granite lies in the most eligible situations for water carriage, constituting as it does the very banks and beds of those rivers. The Columbia and Greenville railroad, now in course of erection, passes over some of the most desirable granite localities, and this affords the means of convenient transfer from the quarries to the cars. That portion of the granite region, as well as the vast talcose slate formation—which extends without interruption over the space embraced between the banks of the Broad and Saluda rivers, from their junction quite up to the Newberry line, and which lies above the falls at Columbia—may be opened to boat navigation by renovating the now decaying Saluda canal, which was constructed by the State at great expense, for the purpose of overcoming this obstacle to navigation, and which, if not applied to the use of water-power factories, for which it is most admirably adapted—as much so as the canal recently made at Augusta for that especial purpose—ought to be restored to the uses for which it was originally intended. It is not unlikely that on the line of the South Carolina railroad, or near it, at some point below the town, good sites may be found for the quarrying of granite. It is the

This shows an aggregate of 27,000 spindles, and a consumption of 10,350 bales cotton. Our previous statement gave 21,300 spindles, and 6,600 bales of cotton. The total aggregate is thus increased to 93,200 spindles, and 25,750 bales of cotton.

Since writing the above, we have received the St. Louis Price Current, of the 20th April, from which we learn, there is a factory in that city, owned and conducted by A. Meyer & Co., which works 4,000 spindles, and consumes 1,400 bales of cotton per annum. The productions are yarns, twines, warp and batting, for which a ready home market is found. There are one hundred and thirty persons employed in the establishment.

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

1. THE CAUSE OF THE SOUTH.

WE have long ago thought that the duty of the people consisted more in the vigorous prosecution of their industry, resources and enterprise, than in bandying constitutional arguments with their opponents, or in rhetorical flourishes about the sanctity of the federal compact. This is the course of action, which, though it may not convince, will at least prepare, us for this crisis which it needs no seer's eye to see will, in the event, be precipitated upon us by the reckless fanaticism or ignorant zeal of the "cordon of free States" surrounding us on every hand. "Light up the torches of industry," was the advice of Dr. Franklin to his countrymen, on discovering that all hope from the British cabinet had fled forever. Light up the torches, say we, on every hill-top, by the side of every stream, from the shores of the Delaware to the furthest extremes of the Rio Grande—from the Ohio to the capes of Florida. Before heaven! we have work before us now. Who conducts our commerce, builds for us ships, and navigates them on the high seas? *The North!* Who spins and weaves, for our domestic use (and grows rich in doing it), the fabric which overruns our fields and not seldom fails to remunerate the labor that is bestowed upon it here? *The North.* Who supplies the material and the engineers for our railroads where we have any, gives to us books and periodicals, newspapers and authors, without any limit or end? *The North.* Who educates for us our children, and affably receives the annual millions we have to expend in travel and in luxury? *The North.* Is there a bale of cotton to leave our ports for Liverpool, shall not a northern ship transport it? Is there a package of broadcloths, or a chest of tea, to be landed at our warehouses? There is a tribute, first, to Boston, or New York! We look on and admire the growth of this tremendous power there, scarcely admitting any excellence in ourselves or willing to make an effort to secure such excellence. Yet we expect to be respected in our rights, and deferentially bowed to by the rulers of the North! Vain hope, if history be credited. Let the scepter depart from Judah, and his brethren will not long desire the pretext to trample upon his inheritance.

It is not too late for hope. Perhaps it is not. No man, with his eyes about him, can have failed to mark the change which is coming over us imperceptibly, and working out a higher and better destiny for the South. To promote this change, we entered the vanguard in the early hours of the day, and have devoted ourselves, with energy, zeal and conscientious devotion, for many years, to the work. We proclaimed to the South, *action!* ACTION!! ACTION!!!—not in the rhetoric of Congress, but in the busy hum of mechanism, and in the thrifty operations of the hammer and the anvil. We have preached this doctrine on the hill-tops, from the day of our first editorial until now—through every defeat, every pecuniary loss and embarrassment, amidst every discouragement, oftentimes with the faintest possible applause. The mead of praise came to us oftener from the North itself in our labors. "*Stop the Review*" was a familiar word that was heard often, often, often, from all quarters, from the highest to the lowest; "I have not time to read;" "I take too many other works;" "I am obliged to reduce expenses;" "You are now getting on too well to need my subscription;" "Perhaps next year I will subscribe;" "I admit it *is* a valuable work and should be encouraged," is denied in none of these letters. More frequently the word is "*refused*," as the number comes back, saddled with postage; and, on reference to the books, it is discovered one, two or three years' subscription remains *unpaid!* These have been our trials, struggles, bitter discouragements and defeats. Verily perseverance, in such a cause, is a virtue higher than that of Hannibal in climbing the Alps, or of Kepler in calculating the laws of planetary motion.

Was the fault, in all of this, ours? We have much to atone for, and admit, with sorrow, many short-comings, and less of merit than the cause, so dearly at heart, demanded. Yet, the early dawn and the midnight lamp have witnessed our labors; and meat and sleep and pleasure, have been sacrificed, cheerfully, to them, without one desponding thought. Why, then, the discouragements and the defeats? The unsolicited tribute of hundreds and thousands in every part of the South—indeed, of the Union—has given assurance, that, wherever the fault may be, it is not altogether ours. We say not this with immodesty, but rather in justification. If wrong, will it not be a friendly part to convince us of it, and point where the mischief lies, that we may apply the remedy. Let the "invisible nightmare," that is "crushing out the life" of us, take a shape, that we may see and fasten on it. "Come, behemoth, chaos or the Hyrcanean tiger," anything than mystery and doubt!

We crave the reader's pardon for this personal episode, and resume our subject. It is customary to hear southern men declare the institution of slavery is in danger, and express the fear it cannot be maintained—hedged in, as it were, by the opposition of so many civilized nations, and attacked by the powers of the North. The more timid are reluctant to invest in the property; some, in the spirit of the tories of the revolution, have sold it all out, and, perhaps, from tender consciences, removed away. It has been quite common to emigrate northward, with the results of *unrighteously taxed* slavery, converted into cash, to be added to northern opulence, and enable it the better to make its crusade against our altars and our homes. The sons of these *slave-made* capitalists soon learn the endless cant of abolitionism and "free soil," if the fathers themselves do not set the example. Denouncing the "price of blood," they are the last to contribute a mill from their unrighteous hoards in the purchase of a "potter's field."

Two thousand millions of property (for it will reach this much) we are told is in peril—but what of this? The abolition of slavery at the South is an impossibility, without a servile war, continued struggles of the races of whites and blacks, desolation of fields, hearths and homes, abandonment of half a score of great States entirely to Ethiopian manners, industry and civilization! No southern man will dispute these propositions, since it is demonstrable that the negro cannot be removed away by all the resources and power of the nation. No southern man will argue these propositions. The time for argument has passed.

What then? can there be any hesitation about our true policy? If abolition involves our irretrievable destruction, and if resistance seems equally threatened with desolation and death, even the coward will not falter when death *certainly* impends upon flight or fight!

The cry, after all, upon the walls, is not war, but peace. "Concession" is the word upon every lip—"concession and compromise," for *peace*. What would you? Is it time to set the world upon fire about abstractions? Would you return to the days of the school-men and embroil nations and men in your hair-splitting polemics? Away with your southern fanatics as your northern fanatics. Wilmot proviso, indeed! Come to your sentences even, Mr. Clay, and have done with such declamation as this.

> "Why is the Wilmot proviso opposed at the South? It is opposed at the South because the South feels that, when once legislation on the subject of slavery begins, there is no seeing where it is to end. Begin it in the District of Columbia; begin it in the territories of Utah and New Mexico and California; assert your power there to-day, and in spite of the protestations—and you are not wanting in making protestations—that you have no purpose of extending it to the southern States, what security can you give them that a new sect will not arise with a new version of the constitution, or with something above or below the constitution, which shall authorize them to carry their notions into the bosoms of the slaveholding States, and endeavor to emancipate from bondage all the slaves there? Sir, the South has felt that her security lies in denying, at the threshold, your right to touch the subject of slavery. She said, 'Begin, and who can tell where you will end; let one generation begin and assert the doctrine for the moment, forbearing as they may be in order to secure their present objects, their successors may arise with new notions, and new principles, and new expositions of the constitution and laws of nature, and carry those notions and new principles into the bosom of the slaveholding States.'"

Various propositions have been brought forward, in the view of preserving the South from the common dangers of the times; but, whatever their individual merit, the result has proved how difficult, how almost impossible, it is to unite the people upon any measure whatever of security or defense. Distraction presides over our councils; and, in the jealousies of sections of parties or of men, a front is exposed, broken at every point, and inviting the assaults, if not the very contempt, of the assailants. Our protests are regarded but gasconade; our earnestness, hypocrisy; our solemn declarations of rights, the silly declamation of men, without concert, whom the first federal thunders will coerce into submission—unwilling and boisterous and fretful, to be sure, but still *submissive*. In sober truth, it is hard to conceive the South has any fixed plan at all, or cares to show more than *congressional valor*, in this struggle.

Great, indeed, superlatively great, to every one of its parts, is the value of this federal Union. Glorious is it, too, in all the associations of history, the defenses of liberty, the struggles of patriotism, and the advances of industry and enterprise. We hail the peaceful triumphs of its flag over all the world, and, in the name of American citizen, recognize a title of pride and power from the rising to the setting sun. We were less than men not to love the stars and stripes of a confederacy, which is now, and ever has been, without a parallel. By these stars and stripes we would breast every danger, and count death immortal when thus encountered. There is not a southern man that does not feel and acknowledge this; and in the sanctity of the relation, easy is it to recognize the cause of all the sacrifices they have made, and are making, and those, in all probability, they will continue to make, in the future. Far be it from us to characterize, as reprehensible, any such loyalty and devotion. The Union is the source of our greatness and strength—its dismemberment will probably be of our impotency and ruin; whilst all the world will look on, with amazement, upon the dissolution of a fabric so beautiful and fair in its proportions.

Thus we should feel and think. Yet there must be an end, somewhere, of concessions. If not a *voluntary* end, a *necessary* one, when everything to be conceded is gone. It becomes the South to determine how far its safety will admit of concession. The stand should be made there. None can mistake the *anti-slavery* growth—it has no resting place. The cry is onward! When was there ever a "step backward" in its history? It will sweep over Mr. Webster as the whirlwind sweeps over the reed. Every concession made to it will induce a more imperious tone—every success will embolden and pave the way for a new and higher triumph. "Will you interpose the constitution?" There is a voice higher than the constitution! Will you make a compromise and hold up its sacred assurances? Majorities rule—numbers have assumed the sway—the edict of Congress goes out upon the land, backed by its fleets and its armies, potent as the nod of the autocrat of Russia and unalterable as the laws of the Medes and the Persians. The path is clear, the end undisputed. The protection of the national flag will be withheld from the slave, in his passage from one port to another in the Union. His arrest in a free State impossible. Slavery will go by the board in the District of Columbia—in the forts and navy-yards. The trade between the States will be prohibited. The final act is not yet, but soon. There is a precedent in the British parliament and the West Indies. *They will use the precedent.* We know the rest.

Where are we? There was an address of the southern members of Congress, admonishing the nation of the perils that encompassed it, and calling upon the South to indulge no ideal dreams of security. Perhaps this address was objectionable in its terms, in its time, and in its tendencies. We enter into no argument. It is a fact, that the "address" was *not* sustained by the *unanimous* southern voice!

There was a call, to meet in convention, at Nashville, to "consider the common danger and provide some measure of security." In our pages, no discussions, in regard to this convention, have been had. We have forborne an opinion. Perhaps such an assembly would add to the general flame, and precipitate the end it was intended to avert. Scylla and Charybdis illustrated. Perhaps violent men would have swayed its councils and plotted anarchy and treason. The example of "Hartford" was paraded in hideous colors. We heard, at last, the President, himself, would put it down. This is improbable, but he has been saved the trouble. The South, itself, has put the convention down. Legislature after legislature gave the cold shoulder. The people avoided the ballot-box, and let the elections go by default. Nashville feared the associations of "Hartford." A few men will meet, perhaps—have met; but to call that a "southern convention," or to say that the South had any active participation in it—preposterous!

The address and the convention are alike *failures.*

A new star arises in the darkness of the hour. Night after night, men gather in Washington, in some out of the way chamber, and venture grave discourse. They will give shape and system to their cause. They will change the issue from Congress to the people. No more speeches, but "articles" and "editorials." Money is collected—prospectuses are issued—editors are appointed, and a newspaper, a "*southern paper*"—a paper without party and without politics—is to emanate from Washington and be scattered over the land, attacking abolitionists in their lair, and confirming doubting and vascilating slaveholders in their fields. The excitement is fine, and money pours into the treasury. Good—but are all agreed now? Were the southern members of Congress *unanimous?* Are the southern people resolved the step is a prudent and wise one? Bye and by subscriptions will slacken, editors will resign, and new ones, without public confidence, be appointed. The paper grows tamer—ambles—squints at politics—offends the whigs—offends the democrats—changes hands. 1852, advocates a southerner for the presidency. 1856, bought out by the free-soilers, and proclaims John Van Buren as the people's choice!

We are to have a southern paper at Washington, "a paper exclusively southern in its tone and tendencies."

In justice to the authors of this enterprise, we give some extracts from their prospectus and address, at the close of this paper.

But is this all we can do? There are other propositions. Col. Wigfall, of Texas, has one which we give below. An Alabama writer has one, which we also append. It is not for us to express an opinion. They are from responsible sources and deserve consideration. We put them before the people.

THE WAY TO CONVINCE THE NORTH.

The propositions in the Alabama paper are as follows. We have little faith in "resolutions," at the best:

"*Resolved*, That an association of our citizens, sound in the maintenance of southern principles, and devoted to the interests of the southern country, should be formed for the purpose of encouraging home industry in all its branches, and rendering the South independent of all individuals, and corporations, and societies, inimical to her domestic policy.

"*Resolved*, That we purchase from the North nothing that can be obtained from the South.

"*Resolved*, That we reject, as far as lies in our power, the merchandise and produce of the northern States hostile to southern institutions. And for such merchandise as is indispensable, let it be bought from the *southern* merchant, who lives and dies in the South, rather than from the northerner, whose earnings here are sooner or later transferred to the North.

"*Resolved, That we encourage southern industry*, by ceasing, at once, the purchase of ready-made clothing coming from the North. This importation to Mobile of boots, shoes, shirts, coats, &c., &c., is a reproach and disgrace to us. Our own tailors, shoe-makers, dress-makers and seamstresses, are at least as skillful as those of any other land. Let them meet with the encouragement they deserve.

"*Resolved, That we encourage southern agriculture*, by giving preference to all produce cultivated in the southern States, viz.: by using southern flour, and not northern corn instead of oats, and fodder instead of hay. That we drink no ale, porter or cider made in the North, but encourage the growth of southern hops and apples, and the establishment of southern breweries.

"*Resolved, That we encourage southern manufacturers*, by consuming their goods in preference to all others; and that we use every exertion to extend their number and variety. That we give every encouragement to the new paper mill, just going into operation near Mobile.

"*Resolved*, That we reduce the cost of foreign goods, by encouraging *direct* importations of all foreign merchandise, which we have until now imported through the North only. That foreign commercial houses favorable to southern interests and policy, be encouraged to establish branches and agencies among us, that our retail merchants may supply themselves at home, without the risk, trouble and expense, of importation from the North. The European markets would require a supply of our agricultural productions in exchange for their goods, in the ratio of our imports, thus giving vitality and stability to a direct trade. The cost of the goods would be so materially lessened as to make us independent of the North for them, and ultimately to destroy their manufacturing interests.

"*Resolved*, That in the distribution of public office, the people should invariably reject all candidates who are not identified with the southern population. The humblest office commands a certain influence; and the encumbent should not be suspected of northern prejudices.

"*Resolved*, That we cease our subscriptions to any newspaper, magazine or review, hostile to our land and institutions.

"*Resolved*, That professional men, and particularly ministers of the gospel and instructors of youth, born in the South, receive our patronage. We should beware of those who, under the garb of religion, poison the minds of the weak and credulous. Still more should we beware of teachers who instill into the minds of our children principles averse to our institutions.

"*Resolved*, That we should extend our colleges and other scholastic institutions by conferring on them new donations and privileges, exercising discrimination in the selection of professors and teachers, in order that we no longer have occasion to resort to northern institutions for the education of our sons and daughters, whose minds are likely to be there poisoned by denunciations and anathemas against their parents.

"*Resolved*, That we create and patronize an establishment for the publication of all elementary books of education.

"*Resolved*, That our summer excursions for health and enjoyment be to our lakes, our bays, to the Gulf of Mexico, to the borders of our southern Atlantic ocean, which contain places of resort combining all the varied advantages of sea-bathing, comfort and society, equal, if not superior, to those of northern watering places. All the southern States abound in delightful mineral springs, to which the invalid and the man of leisure can repair for health and recreation."

COL. WIGFALL'S CURE FOR THE CRISIS.

I would propose the following amendments to the constitution of the United States:

1. Let it be declared that the third clause of the eighth section of the first article, which gives to Congress the power "to regulate commerce among the several States," shall never be construed to confer any power over the slave trade between the States.

2. Let it be declared that the sixteenth clause of the same section of the same article, which gives to Congress the power "to exercise exclusive legislation" over the District of Columbia, and other places in the slave States, shall never be construed to confer any power over slavery in those places.

3. Let it be declared that the federal government shall have the power to acquire territory to belong to the States composing the Union, and that, when acquired, it shall be the duty of the government at once to subdivide it into territories of convenient size, designating the size, and establish over them territorial governments, with no provisions as to slavery, giving to the people of those territories the power of legislating for themselves upon all subjects except upon that of slavery, and allowing them, when they have a sufficient number of inhabitants, citizens of the United States, to meet and form State governments, and be admitted into the Union upon equal terms with the original States.

4. Let it be declared that the first article of the amendments to the constitution, securing to the people the right "peaceably to assemble and petition the government for a redress of grievances," shall never be construed to allow Congress the privilege of receiving, discussing, referring or reporting, upon any petition upon the subject of slavery.

5. Let the fifth article be so amended as to place this compromise, between the slaveholding

and non-slaveholding States, upon the same ground as that between the large and small States, in reference to their equal representation in the Senate, and prohibit any further amendment of the constitution upon the subject of slavery, except by the unanimous consent of all the States.

Could this exciting and dangerous question be once removed, I see no other rock upon which our glorious Union is likely to be wrecked. Can any one doubt, that, if the amendments I have proposed had been originally adopted as a part of the constitution, the difficulties and dangers to which our Union is now exposed would have been all avoided? How fortunate for our country would it have been, had they been substituted in 1820 for the Missouri compromise! But it is not yet too late "to form a more perfect union," and, by so doing, laugh to scorn the predictions of those who look to the dissolution of the union of these States as evidence that man is incapable of self-government.

All that we ask, from our northern brethren, is peace for the present and security for the future. Surely they will not refuse us so reasonable a request. To suppose it possible, would argue but little faith in their fraternal affection. The security which would accrue to us by the ratification of these amendments, is already ours by any fair construction of the constitution. We ask no additional rights to those already granted to us, and seek, by these amendments, merely such a construction of the compromise originally entered into between the different States, as will, for the future, remove all doubt and prevent all discussion.

SOUTHERN PAPER ADDRESS.

In the contest now going on, the constitutional equality of fifteen States is put in question. Some sixteen hundred millions worth of negro property is involved, directly; and, indirectly, though not less surely, an incalculable amount of property, in other forms. But to say this, is to state less than half the doom that hangs over you. Your social forms and institutions, which separate the European and the African races into distinct classes, and assign to each a different sphere in society, are threatened with overthrow. Whether the negro is to occupy the same social rank with the white man, and enjoy equally with him the rights, privileges and immunities of citizenship—in short, all the honors and dignities of society—is a question of greater moment than any mere question of property can be.

* * * * * *

The eventual strength of an opinion is to be measured, not by the number who may chance to entertain it, but by the truth which sustains it; we believe, nay, we know, that truth is with us, and therefore we should not shrink from the contest. We have too much staked upon it to shrink or tremble—a property interest, in all its forms, of incalculable amount and value; the social organization, the equality, the liberty, nay, the existence, of fourteen or fifteen States of the confederacy—all rest upon the result of the struggle in which we are engaged. We must maintain the equality of our political position in the Union. We must maintain the dignity and respectability of our social position before the world; and we must maintain and secure our liberty and rights, so far as our united efforts can protect them; and, if possible, we must effect all this within the pale of the Union, and by means known to the constitution. The union of the South upon these vital interests, is necessary, not only for the sake of the South, but, perhaps, for the sake of the Union. We have great interests exposed to the assaults, not only of the world at large, but of those who, constituting the majority, wield the power of our own confederated States. We must defend those interests by all legitimate means, or else perish either in, or without, the effort. To make a successful defense, we must unite with each other upon this vital question, and make the most of our political strength. We must do more—we must go beyond our entrenchments and meet even the most distant and indirect, but by no means harmless, assaults which are directed against us. We, too, can appeal to public opinion. Our assailants act upon theory—to their theory we can oppose experience. They reason upon an imaginary state of things—to this we may oppose truth and actual knowledge. To do this, however, we too, must open up avenues to the public mind; we, too, must have an organ through which we can appeal to the world and commune with each other. The want of such an organ heretofore, has been, perhaps, one of the leading causes of our present condition.

Fellow Citizens—It rests with ourselves to alter this state of things so far as the South is concerned. We have vast interests which we are bound by many considerations to defend with all the moral and political means in our power. One of the first steps to this great end, is to establish a southern organ here, a paper through which we may commune with one another, and the world at large. We do not propose to meddle with political parties as they now exist; we wish to enlist every southern man in a southern cause, and in defense of southern rights, be he Whig or be he Democrat. We do not propose to disturb them, or to shake him in his party relations. All that we ask, is that he shall consider the constitutional rights of the South, which are involved in the great abolition movement, as paramount to all party and all other political considerations. And surely the time has come when all southern men should unite for purposes of self-defense. Our relative power in the legislature of the Union is diminishing with every census, the dangers which menace us are daily becoming greater, and the chief instrument in the assaults upon us is the public press, over which, owing to our supineness, the North exercises a controlling influence. So far as the South is concerned, we can change and reverse this state of things. It is not to be borne that public sentiment at the South should be stifled or controlled by the party press.

2. PERIODICALS OF THE MONTH—WHAT THEY DISCUSS, &c.

1. The North American Review.
2. The Southern Quarterly Review.
3. Literary Messenger.
4. Blackwood's Magazine.
5. Law Reporter.
6. Plough, Loom and Anvil.
7. Western Journal.
8. Littell's Living Age.
9. Silliman's Journal.
10. Franklin Institute Journal.
11. The Naturalist, Nashville.
12. New Orleans Medical Journal.
13. Charleston "
14. Hunt's Merchants' Magazine.

15. The Literary World.
16. London Quarterly Review.
17. Edinburgh Review.

New England cherishes, with no little pride, the *North American*, whose early connection with American letters vindicates for it the title of the "veteran quarterly." It was established, we believe, in 1816 or 1817, and has, therefore, reached about seventy volumes—covering a period of about thirty-five years. It was, at first, a monthly, under the editorial charge of Mr. Tudors; but, passing into the hands of several literary gentlemen, they changed it into a quarterly. The Hon. Edward Everett, on his return from Europe soon after, undertook the editorial control, and was succeeded by Jared Sparks, the author of Washington's Life and Correspondence, etc. The next editor was the late Alexander Everett, whose diplomatic residence in Spain, and mission to China, are still fresh in memory. Dr. Channing, Mr. Palfrey and others, have since been editorially connected with the work, and, in the main, succeeded in preserving its reputation. That it is not the quarterly of other days is a matter, however, that no one takes the trouble to dispute. Able as are most of the papers, there are but too many flippant and trifling, and far below the reputation of such a work. One reason may be, that authorship of every sort has become a trade, and literary excellence is in proportion to the dollars and cents which are offered for it. The Quarterly, perhaps, cannot bid high enough. Those who write for pay, too, are not apt to be very profound, with rare exceptions. "Glory," said Lord Camden, "is the reward of letters, and those who deserve it scorn all meaner considerations." Yet we are told, now, that Lamartine, Eugene Sue, Bulwer, Dickins and Macaulay, realize immense fortunes from their brains; and that the best British Reviews pay enormous premiums to their contributors. So much for the North American. Its circulation, at the South, is not large; but, small as it is, is much larger than the circulation of any southern work at the North, though some of these last have merit equally as high, if not higher. We are far from reproving our northern brethren for believing that no good thing can come out of Nazareth, since they but borrow the opinion from ourselves—as it amounts to this, practically, when we refuse to sustain or encourage any enterprise south of Mason and Dixon's line.

The *Southern Quarterly Review* was established in 1842, by Daniel K. Whitaker, and, for a few months, published in New Orleans; after which, it was removed to Charleston. The work is modeled upon that of the old *Southern Review*, published in Charleston between 1828 and 1833, and edited successively by those scholars of world-wide fame, Stephen Elliott, Stephen Elliott, Jun., and the late Hugh S. Legare. The era of the Quarterly may well be ranked the Augustan age of southern letters. We look back to it with pride and satisfaction, as the tenants of the Vatican to the times of Leo X. There were those colossal men in science and letters — the elder Elliott, President Cooper, Grimke, and Legare, a rising star which was destined to go out in the zenith of its splendor. There were McDuffie and Hayne—those noble and gallant spirits, whose wisdom and eloquence added to the reputation and the glory of their country; the younger Elliott, Hamilton, Turnbull, Henry, Nott, Dickson—a glorious constellation, which has long been broken up and scattered forever. We cherish with pride the fame of the old Quarterly, and would that it might have lived forever. The English language does not embrace a work we would receive in exchange for its eight plain and unpretending volumes, that grace the shelves of our library. A complete copy, we believe, can scarcely be bought.

But to return to the present *Southern Quarterly*, after so long a digression. If its fame has fallen short of its great predecessor, let not that fact be raised in judgment. Allston may be excellent, though he reach not Michael Angelo. Many things have interfered with the prospects of the Quarterly. The removal from New Orleans was regarded, to some extent, an infraction of the editor's and the subscribers' treaty; and then there was some confusion in the subscription price—many persons being assessed to double the extent of others. To add to the dissatisfaction, several articles, highly political in their character and reflecting upon distinguished public men, with hosts of admirers at the South, found place in the pages of the Review, though its *neutral* character had been guaranteed. The list dwindled away, while it is due to the then editor to say, that he proved himself a most redoubtable canvasser for subscribers, and has won a reputation for that sort of skill, in every counting-house or hamlet throughout the South. It is a part of tradition, that no man ever succeeded in resisting the insinuating blandishments of his manner, and that many were induced to forget they were already subscribers, from the pleasure it would give them to subscribe anew, and respond with their purses to the call of the South. The editor, however, getting tired of traveling, and the finances of the publisher growing "beautifully less," the printers regarded the time favorable for a purchase. Six or seven thousand dollars, we believe, were paid by them, and we have learned that much of it was raised by voluntary contributions, of fifty to one hundred dollars, made up by the friends of the South in Charleston—a noble act, and deserving of commendation.

J. Milton Clapp, a scholar and a writer, perhaps as well and as favorably known as any other at the South, now assumed the chair editorial. Mr. Clapp had presided, for several years, over the columns of the Charleston Mercury, winning high laurels in the political field, and trenching very close upon his distinguished senior in the same paper, the bright but eccentric John A. Stuart—a light, alas! that only faintly flickers now in its socket. It is needless to say that Mr. Clapp, in his new place, inspired the confidence of the South, and added to himself additional laurels. The "laurels," we believe, however, were all, for the attempt to replenish the coffers of the work was scarcely less Herculean than to create bread from stones. It was fortunate that Mr. Clapp, being simply a scholar, was a man of moderate wants and easily satisfied. How he came out from this post, and how it was, that, soon after, we find him an officer of the revenues, charged with the examination of drugs, it is not necessary here to inquire; or why General Taylor removed him, and what were the terms of that remarkable and humorous letter he thereupon wrote—and which was so largely copied—*justifying* the removal upon the ground that, never having succeeded in finding any drugs to examine, his conscience had more than once spurred him to resign in favor of some one who might have better luck in the *sinecurate.*

The next change in the Quarterly places William Gilmore Simms, one of the most intelligent and laborious of the literary men of the South, and perhaps the only professional author that we have in the editorial arm-chair. The fame which he acquired from Guy Rivers, the Partisan, Mellichampe, Pelayo, Richard Hurdis, the History of South Carolina, the Yemassee, etc.—to say nothing of his innumerable contributions, in poetry and prose, to the pages of all the northern magazines, as well as of the Southern Quarterly—spoke for him an enthusiastic welcome to this high and responsible post. A new impulse was at once given to the work; and now that its publishing department has passed into the hands of a young and enterprising house, who have, in their first issue, carried its typography to the perfection of the best Boston or Philadelphia issues, it is but reasonable to predict for the Quarterly a long and brilliant career. With all our heart we extend to Dr. Simms, whose friendship we are proud to cherish, this testimonial of our highest sympathies and regard, and wish him years of honors and success.

The contents of the April number of the Quarterly are—1. *Law Reform in Missouri*, a paper that shows, with the new constitution of that State came great reforms in the practice of its courts—sweeping away, as with the torch of Omar, to use Chancellor Kent's expression, the cumbrous forms of the common law, etc. The age, it seems, will admit nothing that cannot be compressed into a nut-shell, and law learning must go like all the rest. Away with the elaborate rules of Stephens and Chitty. Missouri and New York, and even California, are imitating the simplicity of the Louisiana system. The doctors may expect soon to give the go-by to the learned and unreasonable technicalities in which their prescriptions are concealed from the vulgar. Art. 2. *Mines of California.* Art. 3. *Review of Hammond's Oration.* This is a philosophic and eloquent paper, and passes, with not a little severity, upon those who consider the Viscount of St. Albans the first man who ever discovered how to reason correctly. Art. 4. *Navigation Laws*, from the pen of D. J. McCord, we believe, editor of the later "Statutes at large of South Carolina," and one of the best political economists in the country. Art. 5. *England and Spain.* We recognize the pen of Thomas C. Reynolds, Esq., late attache to the Spanish legation, but now of St. Louis. The article ably sets forth the intricate politics of Spain, and shows the bungling policy of Palmerston, in the celebrated Montpensier marriage case, and the triumph of Sotomeyer over Henry Bulwer. There are several other papers, from able writers and from the editor's pen, of very considerable interest and merit, and over sixty criticisms of late publications.

The *Southern Literary Messenger* is now the oldest publication on this side of the compromise line. It was established many years ago, and was, for a long time, controlled by Mr. White. The editorial was graced, for a short period, by Edgar A. Poe. Mr. Minor continued the publication after Mr. White's death, and, at last resigned in favor of Mr. Thompson, the present editor and proprietor, who is a ripe scholar and an admirable writer. The Messenger holds a decided sway in southern letters, and has numbered among its contributors the most distinguished of our citizens—among others, Judge Upshur, Judge Tucker, Professor Dew, Mrs. Ellet, Mr. Simms, Dr. Dickson, etc.

The other literary works of the South have successively died away. *The Literary Journal*, continued for several years by Mr. Whitaker and Mr. Carroll, at Charleston, had its day of reputation, but passed quietly into the shade. *The Magnolia* followed, and the *Orion;* the "*Rose,*" that beautiful little weekly, conducted with so much grace and talent by Mrs. Gilman; the *Augusta Mirror;* the *Floral Wreath* and Ladies' book, by our modest and talented friend Heriot, of Charleston; *Simms's Southern and Western Monthly*, which reached, with all its merits, just one year, we think. These have all gone, leaving not a shadow behind them; and there have been others of less merit, and some with no merit at all.

Among the other leading periodicals of the country, not included in the list at the head of this paper, are, the *Knickerbocker*, established many years ago, and furnishing monthly the richest intellectual feasts. Timothy Flint at one time conducted it, and the papers of Washington Irving have added to its celebrity. The *New England Magazine* and the *American Monthly* have both passed away. The *Democratic Review*, established in 1837, at Washington, by Mr. O'Sullivan, has since gone through many hands, and is now edited and controlled by Thomas Prentice Kettell. The *Whig Review* is of later date, and was the conception of Mr. Colton, whom we knew well, and lamented in his early death. The *Port Folio* of Mr. Dennie, and the *American Quarterly* of Robert Walsh, are in the category of the departed, and sleep well—as is also the *New York Review*, edited by Mr. Cogswell, and afterward Dr. Hawkes, and contributed to by such names as Legare and Lieber. Mr *Brownson's Review* is still marked by its strong Roman Catholic spirit and prejudices. The Boston *Christian Examiner* maintains the very highest rank, and is illustrated by men of the stamp of Agassiz. This periodical first published the classical papers of Dr. Channing. The *Biblical Repertory*, Princeton, we have not seen for a long time. *Bascomb's Methodist Quarterly*. The *Western Monthly* of Judge Hall has long been among the missing. We are afraid this is the case too with the *Bankers' Magazine*, Baltimore, not having seen it for many months. *Niles's Weekly Register* runs back to the early part of the century, and still continues. *Hazard's Register* is in its grave. *Godey's Ladies' Book* and *Graham's* and *Sartin's Monthly Magazines* charm the lovers of light reading throughout the land, and give to the ladies the latest ideas of fashion and taste. The patronage of these works is enormous, and they have attained a high degree of literary and artistic perfection. The *Ladies' National Magazine* is of the same class. There are some thirty or forty agricultural publications, a list of which appears in volume iv of the Review. The *Spirit of the Times*, the *Albion*, *Dollar Magazine*, *Model Courier*, and *Nineteenth Century Quarterly*, are deserving a place in the list. There are several periodicals devoted to *Odd Fellows*, *Masonry*, *Phrenology*, etc. Among the medical journals are the *American Journal of Medical Science*, *Boston Journal*, *American Journal of Pharmacy*, *Western Journal*, etc., etc. The religious press has also the *Christian Review*, *New Jerusalem Magazine*, *Thornwell's Presbyterian Review*, etc., etc.

Blackwood's Magazine, which has reached sixty-seven volumes, and is, perhaps, the best known in our country, of all foreign publications, continues to cross the ocean, freighted with its racy and spicy sketches, its sturdy toryism and disrelish for everything American. In the pleasure which it always gives us, we have never found it in our heart to complain that John Bull will preserve his national antipathies and dogmatism. It will never harm us to see ourselves as others see us, though it be true they see through a glass dark and distortedly. The republication of this work, the Edinburgh, London Quarterly, North British and Westminster Reviews, by Leonard Scott & Co., at a cost which does not exceed one-third the original, is a real and important service to American literature. The enterprise has been continued, for several years, with great success. The April number of Blackwood contains a paper upon ministerial measures, proclaiming the ruin of the empire, from the free trade principles of Lord John Russel; a scorching and somewhat severe review of Mr. Bailey's extraordinary poem of "Festus;" another of the series of "Christopher under Canvas," in which we have never been able to see much sense; the "Peninsula Medal," continued; "Cash and Pedigree;" the "Clearing of the Glens," etc. The fine little poem, the "Dwarf and the Oak Tree" is a rare satire upon Russell, who is introduced as a manikin perched upon a tall oak and sawing away its limbs. Sir Robert Peel is referred to in the line,

> "By Tamworth town a hermit dwells;"

and his name is, perhaps, played upon in the lines,

> "Once on a time when bark was dear,
> The boughs I thought to *peel*."

The bitter irony of the following cannot be mistaken:

> "And thou an ape-like atomy
> Perched up within the tree,
> Shall its fair limbs be lopped away
> By such a dwarf as thee?
> Yet chattered still the manikin
> Down, down the branch must go!
> The pigs demand the sacrifice
> They 're watching me below."

Contents of the *Plough, Loom & Anvil*, for May. The "Harmony of interests," showing how a protective tariff operates upon the cotton, sugar, tobacco and wool growers. This is the continuation of an able series, by Mr. Carey, of Philadelphia, which will eventually appear in a separate volume, similar to his work on the "Past, the Present and the Future." There are several papers upon wool, and a "memorial of the iron interest to Congress," etc.

The *Western Journal*, St. Louis, for May, contains, in addition to many valuable st two papers upon "California;" the first by the editor, who sustains, in the main, the views we have advanced in regard to the gold resources of that country and their effects upon commerce. The editor copies our account of Melsens's sugar investigations, and thinks that the beet root may yet be adopted extensively in the West, as a substitute for cane. We would as soon justify the policy of extracting sun-beams from cucumbers, especially should anything happen to Cuba!

Littell's Living Age, like the *Eclectic Magazine*, embraces selections from all the foreign periodical publications, and is, of course, an invaluable miscellany. In addition to the leading quarterlies and Blackwood, it extracts from the Retrospective Review, Colburn's New Monthly, Asiatic Journal, London Eclectic, Sporting Magazine, Dublin Magazine, Fraser's Magazine, United Service Journal, Metropolitan, Bentley's Miscellany, London & Colburn's Magazine, etc.

The Living Age supplies the place of the *Atheneum* and the *Museum*, so long published at the North.

The paper which attracted us most in *Silliman*, for May, is that by Agassiz, entitled "Natural Relations between the Animals and the Elements in which they live." We have not space to dwell upon the various scientific articles of the *Franklin Institute Journal*. The first five or six numbers of the *Naturalist*, published at Nashville, have been laid on our table. It is a small monthly, at the cheap rate of one dollar per annum. The editor, T. Fanning, holds a professorship in Franklin College, Tennessee, and designs to discuss, in the work, every subject of chemistry and geology, in a simple and popular form. We wish him all success in his praiseworthy undertaking.

The *New Orleans* and *Charleston Medical Journals*, are, both of them, works highly creditable to the medical science and spirit of the South. In the first, for May, we have one of the papers of the late Dr. Harrison, on the "Nervous system;" a paper by Dr. Shanks, of Tennessee, on a subject whose very name is entirely unpronounceable. Dr. Evans writes upon the "Medical History of East Mississippi;" and Dr. Fearn upon that of Mobile. In the *Charleston Jonrnal*, we have Simonds on "New Orleans Mortality;" and "Morton on Bachman's View of Hybridity in Animals." In the editorial department, we find cotton seed recommended in intermittent fevers, and some account of the meteorology of Charleston, etc. Contents of *Hunt*, for May, "German Notices of California," "Interest of Money," "Charleston," an abstract from the late census of that city, "Currency," "Commercial Code of Spain," "Tea and Tea-trade," to say nothing of the usual statistics. This work loses nothing by age, but increases every day in value. We wish there were half a dozen such in the country, for that number could not more than occupy the field. The *Literary World* has become now indispensable to every one interested in the progress of American letters. Its criticisms upon books are marked by much fairness and intelligence. Its notes upon passing events in literary and scientific circles possess peculiar interest. The work affords material aid in the purchase of books for public or private libraries—furnishing, as it does, weekly lists of everything that is published in Europe or this country.

The *London Quarterly* and *Edinburgh Review*, for April, are just this moment on our table. Contents of the first—"Giacomo Leopardi;" Ranke's "House of Brandenburg;" "Queen's College, London;" "Grote's History of Greece;" "Urguhart's Pillars of Hercules;" "Diary of a dutiful Son;" "Baxter's Impressions of Europe;" "Clarendon;" "Cunningham's London;" "Escape of Louis Philippe." Contents of the *Edinburgh*—"National Observatories;" "Sydney Smith's Sketches of Moral Philosophy;" "Supply of Water to the Metropolis;" "Lander's Poetry;" "Polynesia and New Zealand;" "British and continental Taxation;" "The Village Notary;" "Lewis on matters of Opinion;" "Agricultural Complaints;" "Germany and Erfort."

3. OUR OFFICE—TO SUBSCRIBERS.

Our Office is at No. 22 Exchange Place; but the single numbers of Review are *for sale*, every month, at J. C. Morgan's, immediately opposite. Mr. Morgan has upon his counter nearly all the American and foreign periodicals, light literature and newspapers. His stock of elegantly illustrated annuals and popular authors is always large. He is supplied with every description of stationery, of the most approved qualities, and has a stock of valuable English and American books of every kind, every day growing more extensive. His enterprise in importing the valuable collection of foreign works, known as "Bohn's Library," is deserving of the highest praise, and will, we hope, meet its due reward.

To Subscribers.—Please remit, promptly, all arrears, and for the coming year. Our plans require money. Our expenses are doubled. Do nor wait for an agent. Send bank bills, or specie. The mails are perfectly safe. Help us on in this enterprise. We have no regular agents who cannot show a *special* power, with the Editor's name. Mr. Waring Ioor will travel for us, during the present summer and fall. Address, J. D. B. DeBow.

☞ Payments will be acknowlenged on the fourth page of cover of every number.

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J. D. B. DE BOW, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

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ART. I.—GOVERNMENT OF BRITISH INDIA.

II. THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

EXECUTIVE; LEGISLATIVE; JUDICIAL; MILITARY; ECCLESIASTICAL; FISCAL; POLITICAL.

The mainspring of the government of British India, is, as has been shown, situated in England; but those in India, who are subject to this influence and bound to regulate themselves by it, are not, after all, mere puppets. They possess a substantive power amounting to a practical despotism; and, even speculatively regarded, it might naturally be supposed impossible, at such a distance as England, to direct and control the government of such a country as India, without leaving much to the arbitrary discretion of those in whose hands the powers of local government are placed. What, then, is the mode or form of the *local* government of British India—that is, the government of India exercised in India, as contradistinguished from the *home* government, or the government of India exercised in England? The local government of India may be regarded, in its different relations or functions, executive, legislative, judicial, military, ecclesiastical, fiscal and political. It is, of course, only the most general views of these departments of government that can be presented on the present occasion; and although the four last mentioned may be strictly resolved into the executive department, yet, under the existing forms of administration in India, they may be, with advantage, described separately.

For executive purposes, a governor-general of all India is appointed, with a council of three; and the whole of India is divided into three presidencies—that of Bengal, that of Madras, and that of bay—all being subject to the authority of the governor-general in council, each having a governor and council of three, and each governor and council having subordinate authority within their own limits. The governorship of Bengal is vested in the person who holds the governor-generalship of all India; and, as governor, he has no council, but as governor-general, he has. The governor general of India and the governors of the three presidencies, are appointed by the court of directors, subject to the approbation of the crown: their commissions are annulled at the sole pleasure of the court of directors. In consequence of the extent and populousness of the presidency of Bengal, it is divided into three subordinate governments: first, the government of Bengal, already mentioned, administered by the governor-general; second, the lieutenant-governorship of the north-western provinces, embracing Benares, Allahabad, Delhi, &c., administered by a lieutenant-governor; and, third, the government of Penang, Malacca and Singapore, in the straits of Malacca, administered by what are called resident councilors. Such is the frame-work, the *personel*, of the executive government of India. Its powers are thus distributed. The governor-general and council of India have the superintendence, direction and control, of the whole civil and military government of India; and the subordinate governments are required to obey their orders, and not to commence hostilities, declare or make war or peace with the native powers, without their approbation, or to create any new office, or grant any salary, gratuity or allowance, without their previous sanction. In like manner, the governor-general in council, is restrained from declaring war, or commencing hostilities, or entering into any treaty for declaring war (except in self-defense), without the authority of the court of directors or the secret committee. If the governor-general should differ from the authority of his council, on any question affecting the safety, tranquility or interests, of the British possessions, the grounds and reasons of their respective opinions are to be exchanged in writing and placed upon record; and if the difference should still continue, the governor-general may act on his own authority and responsibility. The duties of the subordinate governments, are to receive and obey the orders of the general government, to transmit to it advice and intelligence of all transactions and matters relating to the government revenues, or interests of the respective presidencies, and to superintend and control the various departments and functionaries within each presidency subject to their authority.

Until 1834, the power of legislation was possessed by the governor in council, of each of the presidencies; but, by the act of parliament of that year, renewing the company's privileges, the power of local legislation was taken from the subordinate governments and given to the supreme or general government of India exclusively. For executive purposes, the council of India, it has been already stated, with the governor-general at its head, consists of three other members, who are appointed by the court of directors, and each of whom must have been in the service of the company ten years. The same persons also, presided over by the governor-general, constitute the legislative council of India, with the addition of a fourth member who must be a person not previously in the service of the company. His appointment, by the court of directors, is subject to the approbation of the crown; while the appointment of the three others, by the court, is absolute. This fourth member, alone, does not belong to the executive, but only to the legislative council; that is, he is not entitled to sit and vote at meetings of the council held for executive purposes, but only at meetings for making laws and regulations. The legislative council of India, thus constituted, has power to make, repeal and alter, laws and regulations for all persons, British, native and foreign; for all courts, whether established by royal charter or otherwise; for all places and things in every part of the territories under the government of the company; and, for all servants of the company within the dominions of allied provinces and states. As the right of parliament to legislate for India is expressly reserved, as well as the sovereign right of the crown, so it is required that all laws and regulations, made by the governor-general of India in council, shall be transmitted to England and laid before parliament, in order that it may appear that no law has been passed affecting the prerogative of the crown, the authority of parliament, the constitution or rights of the company, or the unwritten law or constitution of Great Britain and Ireland.

In the judicial system of British India, there are two classes of courts; those established by royal charter, called King's or Queen's courts, and those established by the company's government, called Company's courts. There are four royal courts—one at Calcutta, a second at Madras, a third at Bombay, and a fourth in the settlements of the Straits of Malacca. The courts at Calcutta, Madras and Bombay, are administered, each, by a chief justice and two judges, who are appointed by the crown, and who must be barristers, in England or Ireland, of not less than five years' standing. The court of judicature of Penang, Singapore and Malacca, consists of the governor of those settlements, a resident councilor and a recorder, of whom the last mentioned alone is appointed by the crown, and must be a barrister of five years' standing. These courts have full authority to exercise and perform all civil, criminal, admiralty and ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and their jurisdiction extends to all British-born subjects residing within the limits of the governments to which the courts are attached. Such persons are subject to the laws of England. These courts have, also, full power to hear and determine all actions and suits against the native inhabitants of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay, determining, in respect of Mohammedans and Hindoos, by their respective laws and customs; and, where one party is a Mohammedan and the other a Hindoo, determining by the laws and usages of the defendant. The native inhabitants of India, residing beyond the limits of the towns of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay, are not subject to the jurisdiction of the royal courts, unless they shall, in any particular cases, agree, in contract, to be subject to it, and the cause shall exceed five hundred rupees ($250); under which circumstances the courts may hear and determine suits between British-born subjects and the native inhabitants of India. The royal courts have no jurisdiction in any matter relating to revenue; and, in matters within their jurisdiction, an appeal lies from their decisions to the privy council in England, if the matter in dispute is not less than ten thousand rupees ($5,000). For the consideration of such appeals, a judicial committee of the privy council has been constituted, consisting of various members of the privy council, ex-chancellors, and always including two retired Indian judges who are supposed to possess the requisite local knowledge and experience for the information and guidance of the other judges.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II.—COMMERCE OF THE RED SEA AND THE EAST.

A FEW REMARKS, MADE BY A TRAVELER, ON A. H. PALMER'S PLAN FOR OPENING, EXTENDING AND PROTECTING, AMERICAN COMMERCE IN THE EAST.

[The writer of this interesting sketch, Emanuel Weiss, has been for eighteen years a resident in the East, and for a part of the time in the employment of the East India Company. He has traveled the deserts with the caravans, and passed himself off as an Arab—a thing, from his appearance, he might very well do. His knowledge of the world is extensive and practical, and his familiarity with the Indies, in every particular, minute and accurate. Such a man must be of great value to us in our increasing relations with Oriental countries. He was the first, we think, to propose the use of camels for California travel. He was born in Switzerland, but has removed to the United States.—Ed.]

In our days, neither Abyssinian nationality nor Abyssinian dominion extends to the sea-coast; therefore it is improper to name Abyssinian, part of the African coast in or outside of Bab el Mandel

(*Arab.*, "gate of tears"). The Pacha of Egypt, having been reinstalled by the Sultan, in the governorship of Suakin and Massawah, claims the whole coast, from Suez to Bab el Mandel.

Between Suez and Kosseir, there is but a scanty population of Bedouin Arabs. The Ababdeh, south of Kosseir, are the first African red-skins with Caucasian features met with on this coast; then come the Ageeg, around Suakin; from thence to Massawah, the Shoho; and from this latter place to the bay of Tudjurra (Gobat Embada), the Donakil.

This bay extends about eighteen miles inland in a western direction, and is divided in two parts by a narrow island, the inner part of which is called the Evil bay (Gobat el Harab) from a conical island in its center, emitting deadly smoke, as the saying is. A two days' journey from the bay, lies the Goobard lake (Birket el Goobard, with sweet water), the receptacle of the Hawash river; and between the two waters, surrounded by barren and volcanic rocks, lies the salt water lake, Birket el Assal, that is, the honey lake—its level about 200′ below the level of the bay. This water division will become, in time, the highway for commerce and civilization to southern Abyssinia and the Galla regions.

From Tudjurra bay to Cape (ras) Hafoon, are the following Somalee tribes: the Eyssa, Gedeborsee, Ayal (children), Ahmet, Ayal Yoones, Habart (clan) el hadjiss, Madjarteen, and El Mahara. The Gabardjees, south of Ras Hafoon, belong, like the Somalees, to the great Galla nation, with Caucasian features and red-skins. The three languages show great affinity to each other. The chief distinction is the religion—the former having embraced Mohammedanism, and the latter still adhering to their old belief in "Waak," the Great Spirit, without the intercession of any prophet.

Mr. P***** believes Zeyla, on the Somalee, and Tudjurra, on the Dankalee (sing. of Donakil), coast, to be Somalee ports, which is wrong. Zeyla is a factory of the town of Mocha, mostly inhabited by Yemenese Arabs, and protected by a garrison of thirty-five matchlock men, of Sheriff Hussein. Tudjurra, on the northern shore of the bay of the same name, is the residence of Mohammet, the petty sultan of the Donakils: its sole export, ivory and slaves. This town, in some way, is a tributary to Zeyla, for military assistance received in former times. The Tudjurra slave-traders pay a tax of two real dahab (gold dollars, a fictif money) for each slave, either to the governor of Zeyla, or to his wakeel (proxy) in Mocha. Both the Dankalee and the Somalee carry the Turkish flag and acknowledge the sultan, Roomee Abdul Medjid, as the Khalifa el Mummineen—that is, the protector of the true believers. This shows what right "John Company"* had to purchase the island of Musha, at the entrance of Tudjurra bay, from the above mentioned Mohammet, for the paltry sum of two thousand dollars; or the French, who paid a similar sum for a stretch of coast at Boïlal, between Massawah and Bab el Mandel, to some underlings of the same Mohammet. Both places are unoccupied yet, and were bought out of pure jealousy.

Tudjurra is the sea-port of Ancobar, the capital of Shoa, or in Arabic, Bar Eefat. Mr. P***** believes Shoa to be the name of a town. Zeyla was, fifteen years ago, in undisputed possession of the trade with Hurrur, an inland town, distant only five days, by uninterrupted traveling; but the Somalees, tired of the exactions of the Arabs, of late, opened an annual fair at Berbera, which absorbs nearly all the trade of Hurrur, notwithstanding the distance to it being about twice as much as to the former place. Berbera is the finest harbor on the whole coast; there are no permanent buildings; the fair lasts from September to March. Foreign traders are obliged to purchase the protection of some Somalee tribe or other, as there is no acknowledged chieftain or governor of the fair, and trade is free in the full meaning of the word. Dogankal, between Zeyla and Bullahar, is the nearest point on the sea coast, only three days' journey from Hurrur; but, unfortunately, its harbor is closed up by a sand bar.

Even if the Joob (Juba?) were supposed to offer a safe channel, during more than "three months in the year," it is hard to see how this river could interfere with the Somalee caravan trade, which goes no further inland than Hurrur.

Gondar, the residence of the Neguz (a sort of "roi fainéant" of old France), is the most northern and the largest town of Abyssinia. It was, a hundred years ago, the capital of the then united empire, but to-day only of the province of Amhara, under the leadership of Ras (chieftain) Ali. Gondar is also the residence of the Aboona (great father or patriarch) of all the Christians in those parts. So is Adowa the capital of Tigreh, and not of northern Abyssinia. The nearest seaport to this town is Amphila, but the Egyptian governor of Massawah has restricted the trade with Abyssinia exclusively to Massawah and Suakin. Ras Cubee is the chieftain of Tigreh, and Ras Sahlo Sehlassee of Shoa. These are the most powerful chieftains of Abyssinia, and they are in constant fear and jealousy, one against the other.

No European power has agents in Abyssinia, if the "pères Lazaristes" (vulgo, Jesuits), in Adowa, are mistaken as such; but in Massawah, both the English and the French keep consuls—not so much to the benefit of traders, as to watch each other's intrigues, to which must be attributed the expulsion of Rev. Gobat, Isenberg, and all the Protestant missionaries in general, as well as the failure of the expedition to Shoa, under Captain, now Major, Harris, the celebrated African Nimrod. Abyssinia is to the French a play-game, like Otaheite and Owhyhee, of late—nothing else. The French never had any trade with Abyssinia, nor with the Red sea either, excepting an attempt made, ten years ago, with the bark "Ancobar," fitted out in Havre, under the direction of some St. Simoniens, who had gone astray, a fine summer day, in their search of the "femme libre"—from France to Turkey, Egypt, &c.—Abyssinia. Those gentlemen loaded the vessel with all sorts of French fineries, and, among others, with suspenders, because the Abyssinians wear small clothes; with kid gloves, because the Abyssinian courtesans showed so much fancy for white skins; with pomatums, to put tallow out of fashion; with snuff tobacco to be chewed. This is all literally true, and no joke. That the attempt utterly failed need scarce be told, nor that it never has been tried again.

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* The "East India Company," as called in derision, in the East.

Coffee is called, in Arabia, "boond," and, in Galla, "boona." Tradition, in Yemen, goes, that Skander (Alexander the great), on his return from India, was welcomed by the Neguz of Habesh (Abyssinia) and his court at Bab el Mandel, which he opened with his sword. Skander, seeing the Habeshee afflicted with big bellies and yellow countenances, made to them a present of the ghat, shrub, from "Bar el Linn (China), as an antidote, and the Neguz, in exchange of politeness, presented him with the coffee tree, which Skander at once planted in the Arabian soil. The leaves of the ghat shrub smell faintly like tea, and also look pretty much like tea leaves. The Arabians of the Yemen are in the habit of chewing these leaves and buds as people here chew tobacco. M. Rocher, a French traveler in Shoa, pretends to have discovered the tea plant there: very probably it is the ghat shrub. Both the coffee and the ghat grow wild in the Galla country, but not in Arabia. Seventy years before Mohammed, southern Arabia was conquered by the Christian Abyssinians. The worshipers of fire, and the Jews, not content with the Christian sway, united and called Ali, the son-in-law and generalissimo of Mohammed, to their assistance, and so attained the expulsion of the Christians; and, into the bargain, the one the destruction of their old faith, and the other a worse bondage than ever—their name having become, under the Islam's sway, a synonym with swine and dog. Probably, during the Abyssinian reign, both the coffee and the ghat were transplanted from Africa into southern Arabia. Skander's name, in Arabian traditions, signifies about as much as Old Nick's, in Europe, connected with fantastic castles and bridges.

The planters of Sana carry their coffee in the husks to the markets of the Yemen, where the coffee berry is separated from it by hand mills formed of two small sand stones. The greedy Arab is not likely to throw away any thing he paid for, and so he drinks the insipid infusion of the coffee husks (Arabic, kischr), which nobody else has taken a fancy to yet, in any other part of the world. The Arabians grind on stones, or pound, their coffee, for want of iron mills, just as they wear sandals for want of skill to make shoes; but not with an idea of preserving, by these methods, the flavor of the coffee, which is more than their impracticable gastronomic faculties seem to permit, even if there were some foundation in the assertion.

The business time at the fair of Berbera lasts but five months: the beginning and the leaving of it takes very nearly a month. The arrival of loaded camels, during this time, may be set down at forty or forty-five thousand head. As the Somalee camels are but of inferior kind, five camel loads must be counted for a ton. The assortment of goods imported at the fair, from the inland, is about as follows: 25 per cent. in coffee (sent, cleaned from the husks, to the Berbera market); 35 per cent. in gums and resins, and 40 per cent. in sour milk for local consumption, butter, sheep-tail fat, tallow, hides, ivory, madder, senna wars (a kind of crocus), and sundry articles.

The statement about the annual export of coffee from Berbera, being 15,000 tons (!), is apparently a misprint, in the pamphlet lying before me, or in Lieut. Hellstedt's Travels, where it seems to be copied from, and is intended to be only 1,500 tons—a sum corresponding near enough to the above figures. The garrison and work-people of the fortification of Aden—nearly ten thousand men, with about fifteen thousand inhabitants more—depend chiefly on Berbera and the Somalee country for their supply of live stock. Berbera, notwithstanding its daily intercourse with Aden, continues to be also a slave market; and so is every port in the Arabian gulf: only the Imaum of Muscat was obliged, of late, to prohibit such trade to his subjects, because the competition of Zanzibar became too sensible to the planters in Ceylon and St. Maurice.

I do not know what advantage for American trade might arise from an embassador to a fanatic Wachabee chieftain, like Sheriff Hussein of Aboo-Arish, the present ruler of the Yemen, or to petty tyrants like Ras Sahlo Schlassee, Ras Ali or Ras Cubee, or to lawless and disunited savages like the Somalees and Donakils. There is only one way to make such people subservient to our wishes: by following the steps of

"John Company," the Handels-Madchappy, and the different fur-trade companies on this continent, which is, to establish fortified *comptoirs* and factories, to draw, as much as possible, the commerce out of the reach of mischief—to procure shelters for vessels and traders, under cover of which cargoes of goods might be collected or distributed, with all leisure and security, in the surrounding countries. Such points are, at present, Aden, Singapore and Hongkong. Such were, two hundred years ago, Bombay, Madras, Batavia, Capstadt, and a number of forts in the then far west, grown up now to populous and wealthy cities, like Detroit, Louisville, St. Louis and many more. Such a point, also, might become the island of Socotra, at the entrance of the Arabian gulf, to the commerce of the United States: first, to protect and concentrate the existing trade with Mocha, Muscat and Zanzibar; then to extend it from the mouths of the Indus all over the Persian and Arabian gulfs, and from Cape Guardafui (Ras Jar Dilfoon) to Zanzibar and the adjacent islands; and, finally, to provide Egypt, directly, with the drugs, spices, colonials and minerals, of the East, in concurrence with Marseilles, which, in a great measure, monopolizes this trade in the Mediterranean, in the place of Alexandria of yore. The old channel between Asia and Europe will be reopened to trade, ere long, by some foreign power or other, as the Egyptians of our days have neither the intellect nor the spirit of enterprise to do it by themselves.

The sea around Socotra abounds with whales and fishes of all kinds. The soil is, for the most part, fertile; dates, bananas and mellons, are plentiful. The aloe of the island is celebrated; the mountains contain, also, many kind of resins and gums, among them the myrrh and the dragon-blood tree (in Arabic, Murr and Demm Lahoueen).

In 1836, the East India company had a committee appointed, in Cairo, to treat, through the Egyptian authorities in the Yemen, for the cesssion of the island of Socotra, with its lord, the petty sultan Ben Affarir, residing at Geshenn on the opposite Arabian coast. The parties came so far as to agree about the amount of the purchase money—£10,000—only the mode of payment separated them. The one asking for ready cash, and the other, in order to bind the Arab to keep the islander in peace, offered to invest the money and to pay only the annual interests, half in ready cash and half in rice. The English speak now ill of the climate and the anchorage of the island; but for Aden, and it would, at present, be theirs, in spite of its defects. It seems the Belgian government has now an eye upon it.

Would such a place, like the island of Socotra, on the high road from Europe to India, not be worth the inspection of some idle man-of-

war; and would it not be of more value to the country at large than the famous Dead sea expedition?

AMERICAN PRODUCTION OF OPIUM.

England's endeavor to render itself independent of American cotton, is manifest, by its great exertions to enlarge and encourage the culture of this staple in the East Indies, in the Cape colony, and recently in Australia. Old England seems quite apprehensive of a retaliation on this score, which the United States so easily might exercise upon a tender part of its rival commercial vitality—say, in China, with opium—the last and the richest of "John Company's" monopolies in Hindoostan. The climate and soil, around St. Diego, are highly adapted to the cultivation of the white poppy (papaver opium), and the lazy creole Spaniards and Pueblo Indians the very people to attend it, at least as good as the Greek, the Osmanlee, the Fellah and the Hindoo, in the eastern hemisphere. The cultivation of the poppy would soon equal, in productiveness, the gold diggings of the northern part of California, and might become the source of an active commercial intercourse with China, and, ere long, also with Japan and Corea—just as tobacco and whisky opened the path to trade and civilization in other countries.

Should the cultivation of tea in this country prove satisfactory, still the Chinese silk would be a return for any quantity of opium to be cultivated in California, Texas, and in Florida. A larger import of raw silk, might, perhaps, induce some industrious citizens of Baltimore or Philadelphia to try a hand at the manufacture of silk piece goods and ribbons, for which the western hemisphere is still a quiet tributary to the old continent, for millions and millions a year.

China receives, in payment for its tea, two-thirds in silver and only one-third in raw and manufactured cotton, opium, rice, ginseng, copper, and sundry articles—a fact which is not so universally known as it ought to be.

Opium in Egypt (opium Thebaseum) costs the producer about sixty cents the pound, and, in Anatoly (Asia minor), about seventy-five cents. The East India company pays the Patna and Malna opium @ $150 the chest of one hundred and forty pounds, avoird. In all these countries, opium is a monopoly of government, the importance of which is best known by the market prices of this article to-day. Turkey opium, in Boston, is worth $4 50 the pound; and Patna or Malna opium, in Bombay, $750 the chest!

American opium would have as great an influence on the trade of the world as American cotton has exercised these thirty years past, and it would be proper to give to the distant Pacific territories a staple produce, to increase the means of employment of the proposed railroad; else stocks invested in it will bear little or no interest at all.

Silk production wants too much attention and care for the impatient American character, therefore it is not surprising that the "Morus Multicaulis" speculation has become a proverb in the country and abroad; but opium production cannot be brought under the same head, its crop fears none of the accidents of the cotton and the mulberry, and the profits thereon are three and four times as much.

English sway over India depends a great deal upon the opium monopoly; as well as English industry on American cotton. I think the subject needs no further comment.

LINSEED OIL.

By raising the duty on linseed oil, and by lowering as much the duty on *linseed*, a direct trade with Egypt could be carried on. Linseed is one of the staple products of Egypt. A great deal of it goes to Liverpool, and, from thence, is imported into the United States in the shape of *English linseed oil.* Natron goes through the same process; and the gums, resins and drugs of the Nile valley are imported into this country by way of Trieste, Marseilles and Liverpool, with a waste of useless expenditures and profits of over twenty-five per cent! In twenty years, only one American merchant vessel was seen in the port of Alexandria, where, nevertheless, the United States kept, and keeps still, a consul-general!

Alexandria would become as good a market for Brazil coffee, dye woods and manufactures, as Smyrna; and the treasury will lose nothing by the proposed trial.

EGYPTIAN COTTON.

I had, somewhere among my papers, notes about the introduction of the long staple cotton in Egypt. The seed was ordered by a large Turkish landholder, by the name of Maco-bey, through M. Jumel, a French gentleman. Therefrom the two names, under which this cotton is known in commerce: it is a triennial plant, the last crop being always slightly inferior in quality to the former two. A superior long staple cotton, with yellow hue, is cultivated in Sennaar, known in trade, sometimes, under the name of Egyptian Sea island. This cultivation increased, in thirty years, from a couple of hundred bales, to 250,000. The Egyptian bales are, on average, only about three hundred pounds. The more or less inundation of the Nile, has, undoubtedly, much influence on the cotton crop, but more so the fluctuation in the price of this staple, which guides the great landholders in the family of Mehmet Ali Pacha to draw their speculative views from one of the many staple products of Egypt to another. It is estimated that cotton costs, on average, about five cents a pound; your object is, to obtain the minutes of this estimate, to permit the planters in this country to draw their parallels, and to induce them to send for seed; as the Spaniards sent for marino sheep to Saxony, on the principle that seed, transplanted from one country into another, contributes much to the improvement of the plant.

You would do very well to send a copy of your next number, with my article, to your consul-general, in Alexandria, begging of him the information required, and telling him that he will obtain them from a certain G. Probizer better than from any merchant in Alexandria; and, about the cultivation, he will obtain good information from Topizza, the Greek consul.

NEW ORLEANS, June, 1850.

ART. III.—NATIONAL VANITY.

NATIONAL VANITY IN CONNECTION WITH OUR OCEAN STEAMSHIPS.

In contemplating the character of the people of the United States, one foible cannot but have forced itself upon the observer as a striking feature. It is that of boasting. Not satisfied with the extraordinary advances of our nation (recently, and within the memory of living men, a colony of England), in all the elements of civilization and the arts of life, we seem desirous of impressing upon the world our ability to surpass all others. That material, both physical and mental, abundantly exists among us, for the attainment of national glory equal to that of any other nation, no one will deny; but it is evident, that these resources must be developed. Experience and practice are essential to us, as a people, no less than to an individual. The renowned artists, architects, sculptors and painters, of Greece and Rome—the builders of St. Peter's and St. Paul's—were once but apprentices. Years of observation, study and practice, were necessary for them before they could carry out their sublime conceptions. To a great extent, we are but mere apprentices—highly favored, certainly, by the facilities of improvement offered in the great achievements of Europe in every department of science, literature and the arts—but still, comparatively, only apprentices.

We are not content to wait. We are dissatisfied, if, upon the first experiment, we do not exceed all other people; and not only so, but boast in anticipation of success. If defeat ensue, which not unfrequently occurs, mortification follows, our self-love is reproved, and we render ourselves liable to the just criticism and ridicule of the world.

This national foible was, in early days, exhibited at a landing on the Mississippi, frequented by flat boats, in the person of a fearless young Kentuckian, who, so soon as the boat, on which he had floated down the river, was made fast, jumped ashore, and, giving three or four caracoles in the air with the necessary whoops, declared that he had the fastest horse, the truest rifle and the prettiest sister, on the western waters—threatening summary chastisement to any who would maintain the contrary. A crowd soon gathered, and the bravado was listened to, for some time, without any reply—some being intimidated and others not disposed to provoke a row. At length a quiet, slow-moving sort of body walked up, and, addressing the fiery Kentuckian, asked him if he had his horse with him. The reply was, that he was aboard the boat. The quiet man remarked, that he was willing to try his speed with a sorry pony that he had brought down with him. A small wager was made, the two horses were brought out, the riders mounted and the race run. The flash Kentuckian was shamefully beaten and made the laughing stock of the assembly. After the race, a long-shanked Tennesseean, with buckskin leggings and hunting shirt, stepped up, and, addressing the braggart, said: "Stranger, I hav n't seed your rifle, but here is an old flint-lock that I will try agin yourn, at one hundred paces, for a treat to the company." The banter was accepted, the distance measured, and the Kentuckian again defeated, to the renewed merriment of the crowd. The drink was taken, and some disposition shown for ending all dispute; but, at the moment, a well-set, stout young boatman walked up, with one handkerchief round his head and another tightly tied about the loins, with his shirt sleeves rolled up to the shoulder, and told our hero, that he should like to see him "*walk out his sister.*" The Kentuckian replied, that she was not aboard, but he was willing to fight on his brag. Rules for fair play were established, a manly stand up made, and the Kentuckian served with a pair of black eyes, and compelled to acknowledge that there was one "gal" in the West as pretty as his sister. Now, this Kentuckian represented Brother Jonathan as he, at this day, stands — enterprising, brave, good natured and strong, but not sufficiently modest and prudent.

These reflections have been suggested by the confident predictions, made for two years past, of the superiority *that would soon* be shown by American ocean steamers, over those of Great Britain. Some good reason has always been given for their failures, but *there* is *the fact.* An occasional advantage may have attended the American vessels, but they have not shown the uniform character of the British steamers—particularly the Cunard line. When the Atlantic was preparing for sea the New Yorkers were in ecstacies. Such a steamer had never been built: her model was perfect, her engines unsurpassed, and she was to show John Bull what ocean navigation was. The trial is past, and the Atlantic has been signally defeated. Reasons for this are "as plenty as blackberries." The paddles were too weak, the valves were made of India rubber, &c., &c. Why were the paddles too weak? Why were the valves made of India rubber? The answer must be, that the men employed in their construction were not acquainted with their business. They were ignorant of the relative strength of machinery necessary for ocean steamers, as compared with those for river navigation.

In the mere construction of ships, whether mercantile or war ships, *for sailing*, it is probable that no country surpasses the naval constructors of the United States. Far different is the construction of the steam engine. The English have more experience, better materials and more skillful artisans. They expend more money on their machinery, labor is much cheaper, and they are never in a hurry. Americans are proverbially so. The principle of the English is "slow and sure;" that of the Americans, "go ahead."

Considering the progress we have made, there is no danger of our being forgotten by the world, nor is there any necessity for our becoming our own trumpeters. There is a want of delicacy—an egotistical self-sufficiency—indulged in by the press, which would not be tolerated in individuals. But such writers do not reflect, that the laudations poured out upon their countrymen are, indirectly, intended for themselves. This propensity is too much in the Chinese spirit: *we* are celestials, and the rest of the world "outside barbarians."

It is the dictate of good sense, that we should be willing to learn. Let our builders and machinists examine these British ocean steamers and learn the secret of their success, and imitate the accuracy and strength of their machinery. It is *the impression of safety*, to person and property, which must confer popularity and profit. It is no satisfaction to a merchant or traveler, misled by the extravagant eulogisms of the press, to trust his property and life to one of these ships, and have them both endangered, to be told that the risk was all owing to the breaking of a paddle made of pine shingles, or the wearing out of a valve of blotting paper.

It will be a sufficient cause of congratulation, when we can equal and compete with the Cunard line. If we should surpass them in swiftness, but, above all, in safety, a little self approval might find some apology. But let us rather DO than boast what we CAN DO.

It is stated in the public papers, that a new ship is to be placed upon the Cunard line, intended to be superior, in every way, to any yet constructed. Let all improvements be studied, imitated, and, if possible, surpassed; but it is time to curb that national vanity which we indulge in—deceiving ourselves to the amusement of all other people.

We have, most certainly, swift horses, true rifles and beautiful sisters—but it is not in good taste to assume, that we can outrun Bucephalus and outshoot Apollo, or to regard the Venus de' Medici as a mere foil to our national beauties. Z.

ART. IV.—MONETTE'S "EARLY SPIRIT OF THE WEST," REVIEWED.

POLITICAL PARTIES AND FACTIONS IN KENTUCKY AND THE WESTERN COUNTRY, FROM 1788 TO 1806.—*De Bow's Commercial Review, April,* 1850, *Vol. VIII, No. IV.*

St. Louis, 23d June, 1850.

J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.: *Sir*—I inclose you the first sheets of a reply to an article which appeared in your April Number, continued in May. The deep feeling which those articles are so well calculated to produce, through a wide-spread connection of the early statesmen of Kentucky, some of whose descendants are now filling high stations of honor and confidence under the government of the United States, as well as that of Kentucky, induce me, profoundly and earnestly, to desire the publication of this reply in your highly esteemed work.

Will you grant this most earnest request, in respect to the feelings of the living and the character of the dead. I am an old surviving friend of many of those ancient statesmen of the West, have associated with them for years, and know their history and conduct with almost family familiarity.

I conjure you, by the high considerations of public justice to those who were deemed, by their generation, among the truest patriots of the West—the pride of Kentucky—and often the ornaments of the general councils of the Republic, to comply with my request. May not some of these considerations prevail on you to waive the want of editorial etiquette, in *republishing*, from the Western Journal of our city?* *I intended the reply for your pages at first*, but was deterred by my distance from the correction of the press.

I came to Kentucky in 1806, and have devoted myself to western story ever since.

The criticism will be continued, in the next number of the Western Journal, and, if you so signify, shall be forwarded, in sheets, before they appear here.

Do tell Dr. Monette, he has been led astray, by the mendacious calumny of the "Western World," to do the public men of Kentucky and the West the same injustice, which, I think, he has done the Hunters' History of Kentucky, in his "History of the Valley." Of this, more anon.

I have the honor to remain, very respectfully, yours, MASON BUTLER.

THIS is the title of an essay, which, instead of portraying the early patriotism and gallantry of the West—a work it might well and justly have performed—attempts, at this late day, to rake up the embers of party strife, which have been long smothered by public consent, and are now almost forgotten in the subsequent strength and prosperity of this great section of the Republic. Still, nothing can excuse the injustice and gross misrepresentation of Kentucky history, and that of the West, which this essay so grossly betrays. It shall be the business of this reply to point out those misrepresentations, of both measures and men, which have, for many years, been the subject of the writer's study and inquiry, he might almost say—"*quorum pars fui.*"

The assertion with which this essay opens, is "That the great and dominant party (meaning in Kentucky, and about 1784) consisted of those favorable to a legal separation from the parent State, preliminary to an independent State government and admission into the Federal Union." This is only justice to the frank and loyal character of the Kentucky pioneers, confirmed by the whole history of their repeated and patient attempts to effect a separation from Virginia; and her consent to the measure repeated in four different forms, at as many different times.

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* We publish, with all our heart, the article and the letter, though we are not sure the author intended this last for print. *Fiat lux* is our motto, and truth with it. Dr. Monette will take care of the rest.—ED.

But this essay represents, that other parties contemplated an independent government separate and distinct from the Federal Union, and under the *protection of one of the great monarchies—Great Britain, Spain or France.* These three parties were included under the general name of disunionists, in contradistinction to those who recognized and sustained the jurisdiction of the State and Federal governments in opposition to all others. This is, indeed, a peremptory statement, apparently challenging contradiction. Yet, I will venture to assert, upon a long and intimate knowledge of the parties of Kentucky, that no such term was ever, in fact, used to mark her parties; nor did the principles of disunion enter into their spirit. In 1776, before Virginia had formally claimed her dominion over the West, the colony of Transylvania was attempted to be established under the great land company of Henderson & Co., under the authority of the British crown, then the governing power. The earliest of the western colonies, and the first which collected a legislative body in the West, was so effectually put down by the combined authority of Virginia and North Carolina, and so absolutely acquiesced in by the people, that it has scarcely left a trace of its existence, beyond the grants of land which purchased the submission of the land company. Kentucky county sprung up in the place of the new colony, with scarcely an audible murmur, and Transylvania was afterward transposed to the oldest of the western literary institutions. But, when population and prosperity increased, then the pioneers began to look for a foreign market for the surplus produce of their labor, which could not pass the mountains. Then they began, naturally enough, to stretch their eyes to the Mississippi as the only practicable outlet to the ocean and the markets of the world. But, suddenly, a rumor was heard, that the government, consisting of the old Congress, meditated to suspend the navigation of this great stream for twenty or thirty years, in favor of Spain. Then, indeed, murmur naturally arose from the men who had perilled everything on this side of the mountains. Soon after the report of this meditated wrong to the West reached Pittsburgh, it produced an association for the purpose of warding off this blow, so fatal to the embryo West. The association transmitted to Lexington (Ky.) an account of this negotiation, so terrible to their hopes, in terms almost necessarily exaggerated in the imperfect condition of public intercourse—when no mail service existed west of Pittsburgh, and for years afterward, only one every *two* weeks. A letter of similar import to the Pittsburgh address, was directed from the Falls of the Ohio to the governor and legislature of Georgia, having territorial claims to the banks of the Mississippi (Pitkin's U. S., vol. ii, p. 208). This communication from Pittsburgh, occasioned, in March, 1787, a public address to the citizens of the then district of Kentucky, inviting them to assemble at Danville in the ensuing May. The shades of mistake, as to the actual condition of the Spanish negotiation and the consequent exaggeration of these different public communications, at such a time of limited intercourse, and on so sensitive a subject, I will not now stop to point out or explain. My purpose is, to show the existence of a substantial cause for this fevered state of the public mind, on a subject dear to the hearts of the people. Well, so deeply had apprehensions for the navigation of the Mississippi affected the public mind, that Congress felt it necessary, in September, 1788, in order to remove them, to authorize its members to contradict the reports that it was disposed to treat with Spain for the navigation of the Mississippi. That body, also, formally resolved, that the free navigation of the Mississippi was a clear and essential right of the United States; and that the same ought to be considered and supported as such. Virginia had, in November, 1786, taken up the same subject, and in a manner more decisively in favor of the rights and interests of her western citizens, contrary to what had been her action on this very subject in the early and more threatening times of the Revolutionary wars. And again, so late as 1783, when the present Constitution of the United States was under discussion in the convention of Virginia, so imperfect was the public information on the subject, that Mr. Monroe was called upon to explain the whole matter to that grave assembly, in whose proceedings his communication appears. This forms the earliest full account of a negotiation so deeply interesting to the West, even in its earliest weakness, when surrounded by ferocious and hostile tribes of the most warlike savages in North America.

Yet, notwithstanding this agitating state of things, from causes not now to be traced, the meeting did assemble at Danville, as invited by the circular above mentioned, and adjourned without even a fire of resolutions. This is no slight evidence of the influence of pacifying considerations not any longer accessible. This forms the principal portion of the domestic action, which no patriot can now condemn on this interesting matter.

The Spanish party, in Kentucky, had its origin in the attempts of both France and Spain to limit the territory of the United States to the Alleghany mountains. The exertions of the Count Lucerne, the French Minister at Philadelphia, were pertinaciously directed in conformity with the instructions of his court and the interest of Spain, to prevail on the old Congress to instruct their minister at Paris, "that the United States extend to the westward no further than settlements were permitted by the British proclamation of 1763; 2d, that the United States do not consider themselves as having any right to navigate the Mississippi—no territory belonging to them being situated thereon; 3d, that the settlements east of the Mississippi, embracing Kentucky with her northern and southern neighbors, which were prohibited as above, are possessions of the crown of Great Britain, and proper objects against which the arms of Spain may be employed, for the purpose of making a permanent conquest for the Spanish crown." (Pitkin's U. S., vol. ii, p. 97, 99 & 109.)

How all this intrigue of both branches of the House of Bourbon, which extended from Paris and Madrid to Philadelphia and New York, was defeated, is no longer necessary to narrate. It is, however, a page of our history full of honor to Jefferson and Madison, and, above all, to John Jay.

The ramification of this intrigue, which first manifested itself at New York, and then at New Orleans, has a more domestic interest, and is directly connected with the subject of this essay. After the failure of the negotiation between Spain and the United States, previously mentioned, owing to the haughtiness of the former in 1788, Don Gardoqui, the Spanish minister at New York, informed Mr. John Brown, then attending as a member of the old Congress from Virginia, "that if the people of Kentucky would erect themselves into an independent State and appoint a proper person to negotiate with him, he had authority for that purpose, and would enter into an arrangement with them for the exportation of their produce to New Orleans."

This proposition was inclosed in] a confidential letter to Judge McDowell, the president of several conventions in the district of Kentucky (Littell's Narrative, appendix, p. 40; Perkins's Annals of the West, p. 313, first edition). A letter of a similar spirit was written, also, by Mr. Brown, to Judge Muter, the Chief Justice of the district of Kentucky, These letters are likewise mentioned in a correspondence between Col. Thomas Marshall, the father of the late preëminent Chief Justice of the United States, and General Washington, communicated to the present writer by Mr. Sparks. These same offers were communicated to Mr. Madison, then a colleague of Mr. Brown, in the old Congress. In a letter to the present writer, dated Montpelier, October 11th, 1834, that venerated statesman said: "I have received yours of the 21st ult., in which you wish to obtain my recollections of what passed between Mr. Brown and me in 1788, in the overtures of

Gardoqui, that if the people of Kentucky would erect themselves into an independent State, and appoint a proper person to negotiate with him, he had authority for that purpose, and would enter into an arrangement with them for the exportation of their produce to New Orleans. My recollection, with references to my manuscript papers, leaves no doubt that the overture was communicated to me by Mr. Brown. Nor can I doubt, as stated by him, I expressed the opinion and apprehension, that a knowledge of it in Kentucky, might, in the excitements there, be mischievously employed. This view of the subject evidently presented, from the natural and known impatience of the people, on the waters of the Mississippi, for a market for the products of their exuberant soil—from the *distrust* of the Federal policy, produced by the project for surrendering the navigation of that river for a term of many years." "I owe it to Mr. Brown, with whom I was on intimate friendship, when we were associated in public life, to observe, that I always regarded him, whilst steadily attentive to the interests of his constituents, as duly impressed with the importance of the Union and anxious for its prosperity." Such is a full and unvarnished account of the first overtures of Spain to Kentucky. And, I must freely admit that the first idea which strikes the mind in considering this letter, is, that Mr. Brown, and, in all probability, Wilkinson, Innes, Muter, and many of the other eminent statesmen of Kentucky, did incline to adopt some connection with Spain, independent of the feeble and disgraced confederation which existed in 1788—a government in name more than in fact, disobeyed at home and despised abroad. There was another circumstance most exasperating to the hearts of the western people, that this government, imbecile as it was, had formally proffered to shed the very life-blood of the West, by suspending the navigation of the Mississippi for twenty or thirty years, in terrible probability forever. Concessions seldom go backward between rival nations. Under these aggravating circumstances, I do not think a commercial connection with Spain is to be deemed cause of reprobation against the patriotism of Kentucky statesmen; on the contrary, at that time, and under those circumstances, it might be demanded by the most sacred duties to this deserted and forlorn section of a disjointed confederation. I have said, on another occasion, what I now conscientiously confirm, that, to try the conduct of Kentucky statesmen in 1788, under a confederation in ruins and in factions, by the same principles which should now direct the mind under an efficient and beneficent government, would be absurd and unjust. The peculiar circumstances of the times must be adverted to in order to arrive at any just estimate of the measure or its authors. What then were these circumstances? They are eloquently and not less truly narrated by General Wilkinson, "Open to savage depredations, exposed to the jealousies of the Spanish government, unprotected by that of the old confederation, and denied the *navigation of the Mississippi*, the only practicable channel by which the productions of their labor could find a market." (Wilkinson's Memoirs, vol. ii, p. 119.) Again, "All who ventured on the Mississippi, had their property seized by the first commanding (Spanish) officer whom they met, and little or no communication was kept up between the two countries." Was this a condition for any community, much less for one of high-spirited freemen, with their arms in their hands, just fresh from hunting down the British lion, to tolerate any longer than it was unavoidable." How long would any section of this republic, however faithfully devoted to the Union, *now* submit to so intolerable a state of things? Couple these grievances, which must have blasted the industry and the dearest hopes of the country—which must have driven the emigrant back over the mountains, and condemned the rich lands of Kentucky and the West to waste their fertility in uncultivated forests, again to become an Indian wilderness rather than continue a civilized community. From these circumstances some faint idea may be conceived of the necessity which the statesmen and people of Kentucky must have felt to look to some other protection for the vital interests of the country, than the tottering and imbecile confederacy which then deluded the country under the pretense of a government. Can circumstances be imagined more imperative on Kentucky patriots and statesmen to look for that protection which their own government could not give, and without which all government is a mockery and a perversion of the very purposes of its creation?

This whole subject was before the district convention at Danville, in Kentucky, in 1788; Mr. John Brown was on its floor as a member, and was called out by Gen. Wilkinson to communicate to the convention the information he possessed on the subject of the navigation of the Mississippi. To this convention Mr. Brown replied, that "he did not feel himself at liberty to disclose what had passed in private conferences between the Spanish minister, Don Gardoqui and himself; but this much in general he would venture to inform the convention, that, provided we are unanimous, everything we could wish for is within our reach." (See Littell, Marshall and Butler.) Nothing further was done at this convention than adopting an address to Congress and the legislature of Virginia, urging the independence of Kentucky. It may as well be mentioned, in connection with this part of my subject, that Mr. Brown informed the present writer (and who that ever knew the conscientious veracity of his venerable character will not appreciate its unimpeachable worth), that, in advocating unanimity in the convention, and declaring that everything we could wish for is within our reach, he meant State independence—not distinct from the Union of the States, but just as it was afterward obtained in connection with the other States. The backwardness which Mr. Brown discovered in the convention, to enlarge upon the offers of the Spanish minister previously communicated to Judges McDowell and Muter, may well be attributed to a change of opinion produced by the interview with Mr. Madison. This frank disclosure to an eminent colleague, in addition to the communications to the heads of the legislature, and the bench of the district (as the president of the convention and the chief justice may well be termed), at once vindicates the loyalty of Mr. Brown to the union of the States, and accounts for his reluctance to furnish any further information on the subject. It may be well, at this late day, to add, that Mr. Brown enjoyed the highest confidence of his compatriots—that he not only had the rare honor of being the only representative from the western country, who ever sat in the old Congress, but was the first representative of Kentucky, in the Federal government, twice elected her senator in the council of the Union, and, moreover, by the appointment of Washington, he was a member of the board of war in the West, associated with Shelby and Scott. Are these honors that would have been extended to a Spanish conspirator? How comes this essay to assert that "Brown readily acceded to the proposed terms by Gardoqui—that he arranged the terms of a commercial union with Louisiana; 2d, that, to Judge McDowell, he (Brown) communicated a general outline of the terms of alliance proposed to the people of Kentucky on the part of Spain"? Was anything like a final and conclusive arrangement entered into on the part of Brown or acceded to by Spain?—anything beyond a bare overture suggested by the Spanish minister, communicated to the members of the convention in Kentucky, and in person by himself, all published in the lifetime and with the knowledge of the parties, State and Federal, and in the face of a public convention? Are the public of this day to be imposed upon and deceived by random statements drawn from no other source than a virulent and partisan paper, the *Western World*, published for a short time in Kentucky, some forty years ago? Yet, this is the authority to which this essay stoops to support its scandals against the early spirit and the statesmen of the West. Such is the testimony produced for matters which have been sifted by excited discussions recorded in legislative proceedings, and have finally received the formal stamp of history. Such is the progress and close of the first phase or form of the Spanish party in Kentucky. It originated in attempts to resist the surrender of the navigation of the Mississippi to Spain, the rich inheritance which millions are now enjoying, as proposed by the old Congress and yet despised by Spain. The next great object with the people of Kentucky, if at all inferior to the former, was the establishment of a domestic government distinct from Virginia. This was effected in 1792, with the consent of all the high parties.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. V.—THE BARON HUMBOLDT'S "COSMOS."

THE PHYSICAL HISTORY OF THE UNIVERSE EXAMINED AND DISPLAYED.

It rarely happens, in the history of the progress of knowledge, that, for a full half century, the name of a single man continues predominant among the living expounders of nature; and still more rarely does it occur, that the pen of the hoary octogenarian, with a steady hand, pours forth an intellectual libation, that refreshes and intoxicates a world of fastidious mental appetites. A *world*, we say; for, when Humboldt speaks, the world is his audience. Every lover of knowledge feels a glow of pleasure when he contemplates that immortal name, and that he holds a filial relation to the venerable philosopher.

Did we not, as far back as the days of boyhood, travel with him from the pampas of the Paraguay and Amazon to the summits of Chimborazo and Popocatapetl? And did we not, even then, regard him as an imaginary philosopher, who had made the path of travel, however rugged, so fascinating that he seems to accompany and guide our footsteps, as we, in turn, scale the mountains and tread the trackless plains. Look upon his portrait in the volume before us—you, who would be convinced anew, that he is the object of filial attachment, to whom you have so long rendered affectionate homage—and you will find, in that serene face of intellectual urbanity, the secret of the fascination with which his fluent pen always invests the scenery of nature.

As a parting gift to his innumerable children, he has brought to bear all that profusion of knowledge and versatility of natural gifts, which belong to him, in producing this "Review of the Universe," which, for three-score years, has continually commanded his fervent devotions. Posterity will treasure the inheritance, and with it the memory of Alexander von Humboldt.

But how shall the reviewer enter upon his grateful mission, in heralding the advent of this extraordinary work? To extract from it is but to mutilate and misrepresent the pictures of nature. An eulogism would be a loss of labor; a criticism of its science, plan or range of subjects, presumption!

Many there are, however, whose time and avocations will not permit them, soon, the enjoyment of the rich treasures unfolded in the Cosmos. To such we shall have the pleasure of playing interpreter and epitomizer.

Most writers have devoted their time, and the powers of their minds, to single subjects of inquiry, or single groups of sciences, linked together by near analogies. Hence few men of science deserve the name of philosophers. Great as the service may be, thus rendered by long research into single subjects, furnishing reliable material for the use of the philosopher, still he who limits his inquiries to a single field, requires the aid of another—a master architect—to fit his sculptured block into the great temple of knowledge. Humboldt must, for the present, be regarded as the builder of the temple. Every enlightened nation has contributed its block, and each block has been carved by the labors of many a skillful hand; and the designs and inscriptions on each bear the traits of the genius of every chisel that has touched it. All these have been gathered together by our architect, and reared into a temple of almost immeasurable height. Its description has been called the *Cosmos*. The builder belongs to no country. In the highest and best sense of the term, he is a cosmopolite.

We habitually omit the preface and the introduction to a work. This is unjust to both the reader and the author: to the reader, because he denies himself a pleasant chat, in the way of getting acquainted with his author, the plan, scope and object, of his work, etc.; to the author, because we cannot do him justice without some competent acquaintance with his motives and objects in producing the volume. In the exact sciences, these are wholly unimportant; in all other works, almost indispensable.

In the preface to the Cosmos, we seem to speak personally with Humboldt. In his introduction, we listen to him lecture on the pleasure of the study of nature, the best modes by which such studies are conducted and mastered, the high value of a wide range of research; and, finally, the history is, in some measure, given, of the various efforts made, in past ages, to take into one view the whole phenomena of nature. Since the "Book of Nature," from the hand of Dr. Good, no single work, in the English language, has attempted a similar task. That great work—less comprehensive, less popular, but more exact and technical, than the Cosmos—had been well nigh superseded by the advance of the age in knowledge since the death of its author. They are not rivals.

Thousands, in almost every rank of life, have blessed the name of John Mason Good. Millions, of both greater and humbler pretensions, will have occasion to congratulate themselves and the age, upon the longer life and greater knowledge and livelier fascinations of Humboldt. He invokes no fabulous muse to preside over his fancy, but, with a livelier strain than even poets reach, he says:

> "It is by the separation and classification of phenomena, by an intuitive insight into the play of obscure forces, and by animated expressions, in which the perceptible spectacle is reflected with vivid truthfulness, that we may hope to comprehend and describe the *universal all* (τὸπᾶν), in a manner worthy of the dignity of the word Cosmos. * * * May the immeasurable diversity of phenomena, which crowd into the picture of nature, in no way detract from that harmonious impression of rest and unity, which is the ultimate object of every literary or purely artistical composition.
>
> "Beginning in the depths of space, and the regions of the remotest nebulæ, we will gradually descend through the starry zone, to which our solar system belongs, to our own terrestrial spheroid, circled by air and ocean, there to direct our attention to form, temperature and magnetic tension, and to the fullness of organic life, unfolding itself upon its surface, beneath the vivifying influence of light. In this manner, a picture of the world may, with a few strokes, be made to include the realms of infinity, no less than the minute and microscopic animal and vegetable organisms, which exist in standing waters, or on the surface of our weather-beaten rocks. All that can be perceived by the senses, and all that has been accumulated, up to the present day, by an attentive and variously directed study of nature, constitute the materials from which this representation is to be drawn, whose character is an evidence of its fidelity and truth."

Admitting but a truism, that much is still unknown, he acknowledges the difficulties of representing, perfectly, "unity in diversity."

> "Besides the pleasure derived from acquired knowledge, there lurks in the mind of man, tinged with a shade of sadness, an unsatisfied longing for something beyond the present—a striving toward the regions yet unknown and unopened. Such a sense of longing binds faster the links, which, in accordance with the supreme laws of our being, connect the material with the ideal world and animates the mysterious relation existing between that which the mind receives from without and that which it reflects from its own depths."

Following the anticlimacteric method, recently adopted by teachers of astronomical and geological science, our learned author commences with the remotest theoretical evidences of a beginning, and pursues the ever progressive creation down to its present diversified development. The sublimest views come first, by this method, and the specialties succeed the grander generalities. But we are prepared, by his eloquent and most instructive *Introduction*, to find that the intensity of enjoyment in the study of nature does not subside with the transition from the remote to the proximate—from the stupendous to the minuter bodies and movements in nature ; and, if we mistake not, every student of nature will respond to the sentiment, in his searching analysis of the mental enjoyments of the philosopher, that the same depth of joy may be felt in the discovery of a new law in vegetable or animal growth or organization, or a new species in microscopic life, as in the discovery of a new planet or in the demonstration of a new law comprehending the universe. It is in kind, but not in intenseness, that the ecstacy differs ; and here is the most substantial encouragement ever rendered to the unsatisfied pursuer of any line of discovery, that another field of research will not necessarily heighten his enjoyment. "Labor in thine own vineyard, and its fruits shall abundantly bless thee."

In the sketch of Celestial Phenomena, there is an abundant recognition, without a distinct announcement, of the "nebular theory," usually called La Place's nebular hypothesis. This doctrine supposes all the material universe to have been once in a fluid or nebular condition, and that, by the operation of universal gravitation and the thousand other laws of nature, the nebular matter has been mainly aggregated into masses, and the existing *cosmoi* been developed. After this announcement, which, since the demonstration of Kirkwood is no longer regarded as improbable, the sidereal systems are introduced, and the place of our solar system pretty definitely assigned.

> "Our starry stratum, is a disk of inconsiderable thickness, divided a third of its length into two branches. It is supposed that we are near this division, and nearer to the region of *Sirius* than to the constellation Aquilla, almost in the middle of the stratum in the line of its minor axis. * * * This narrow branched girdle, studded with radiant light, and interrupted here and there with dark spots, deviates only a few degrees from forming a perfect large circle, round the concave sphere of heaven, owing to our being near the center of the large starry cluster, and almost on the plane of the milky way. If our system were far outside this cluster, the milky way would appear, to telescopic vision, as a ring, and, at a still greater distance, as a resolvable discoidal nebula."*

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* In the face of the authority of great names, but in contravention of none of the known laws of nature, I here take occasion to venture my dissent from the assumption of the unlimited extent in space of the sidereal heavens.

If one orb in space be in motion, all other orbs are in motion—gravitation being coextensive with matter. There can, therefore, be but *one system*, the

All the self-luminous spheres are to be regarded, not, as erroneously termed, *fixed stars*, but as moving suns. The center of our planetary system is the only one known, by observation, to be attended by satellites, whether planetary, cometic or aerolitic. The motions of self-luminous stars, around each other in space (as well determined, first by Struve's and Bessel's measurements on the star 61 Cygni, and subsequently by many other observers upon different stars), is very different from planetary motion. The latter has the sun for its center, while the former is a reciprocal motion of the stellar bodies, round some common point in space.

In its notice of the planetary system, we regret that the Cosmos was completed before the discovery of the outer member of our system, and the completion of the asteroid cluster by the addition of Flora, Iris, Hebe, and Astræa. But the author has survived to know, that these long hidden members of the planetary family have been discovered; and he has joined in the songs and the joy that celebrate the names of Le Verrier, and Adams, and Hencke, and Hinds. The translator of Cosmos has given a note at the proper place, that the reader may be advised of the time and manner of the new discoveries.

Comets and aerolites receive a well merited share of the author's attention. The former are, by a masterly stroke, stripped of the mysterious character with which the superstitions of the past seem to have invested them. It appears more than probable, that, at several different times, the extremely attenuated trains of these nebulous planetary bodies have enveloped the earth, but without any serious results. The peculiar coloring of the sun's light, witnessed in many parts of the earth on the same day, is possibly explainable in no other way. Aerolites, too, have been assigned a rational place among planetary bodies revolving about the sun or earth, and occasionally brought so far within the sphere of terrestrial gravitation as to fall upon the earth.

The periodical recurrence of certain meteoric displays, seems to remove all doubt as to their astronomical relations, and to establish their rotation around the sun in schools or zones, whose plane of rotation is annually cut by the earth in its orbital motion. The two most remarkable of these aerolitic planets, was that of November 12–13, and that of August 10; the former with a period of thirty-four years, or some factor of thirty-four years, and the latter with a nearly annual

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parts of which are the individual material bodies, and the sum of these parts the whole system.

The assumption, in the present state of knowledge, that this number of material bodies is infinite, is unphilosophic and wholly unwarranted. I deny it and call for the proof.

period, or with an extent of zone, requiring not less than fourteen years to pass the ecliptic.*

The most remarkable fact mentioned by Humboldt, regarding the zodiacal light, is the historical one, that there seems to have been no notice taken of it by ancient astronomers—that, although the phenomena of the heavens were so elaborately treated by Chaldean, Arabian Egyptian, Greek and continental philosophers, there is no mention made of the subject till 1661, and no investigation made till the day of Massini, 1683. It is scarcely possible that it was then first introduced to the eye of man; for, judging from its brilliant appearance in the western sky, in our clear moonless evenings, here in the South, it has as much the appearance of antiquity as an other of the heavenly bodies.

In the *translatory motion* of the solar and stellar systems, the readers of the Cosmos will find one of the most comprehensive views of the universe that has ever been written. This closes the celestial portion of Cosmos.

To notice but incidentally every subject treated in the first volume of the work, would carry us far beyond the limits of a literary notice. Passing over the subjects of geographical distribution, the figure of the earth and terrestrial magnetism, we come to the subject of *central heat.*

Long have men of knowledge contested the hypothesis of central heat, and the former igneous condition of the planet we inhabit Evidences, accumulated from two principal sources, have well nigh demonstrated the position. Geological evidences have been added from every quarter. Artesian shafts and deep excavations in mines, in all parts of the world, show an increase of temperature, downward, with a somewhat various ratio, but averaging about two degrees for every hundred feet. If this be continuous, beyond the limits of our knowledge, as seems likely from volcanic fires and sections of oblique geological strata, a distance of some twenty miles from the surface, toward the center, would be hot enough to melt granite rocks; and, probably, at twice or thrice the depth, to melt all clays, earths, rocks and metals. The astronomical evidence, if such we may term it, consists in the harmony of the present condition of the material universe with the hypothesis of an original fluidity.

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* In the year 1837–8 (August 10), Forster, Erman, Boguslawski and Kreil, sufficiently established the character and radiant point of the meteors of August 10, which have been seen to recur every year since that date. In 1837 and 1838 the writer of this article discovered, independently, the same fact in the western portion of the United States. Although the meteors were seen in the year 1837 by him, it was not till their recurrence in 1838, that their nature and description were sufficiently determined. As early as August, 1840, he published in the transactions of the American Philosophic Society, Philadelphia, the results of four years' observations, and distinctly announced the hypothesis of their planetary or orbital character, and suggested the limits of their inclination to the ecliptic.

It seems to me, that, along these unsettled boundaries of knowledge, the mind, even of the learner, delights to dwell and to heighten the pleasures produced by new and beautiful truths, by the aid of an occasional flight of fancy on the undiscovered side of the line. Let him who responds to this sentiment, open the Cosmos wherever he will, and he will find that the author has indulged in a few excursions in almost every subject he has treated; but still he has, with the integrity of a true surveyor, marked with visible monuments the boundary as at present known.

Feeling that our partialities for geological science would lead us into too great prolixity, in a notice of its various subjects by Humboldt, we pass entirely over this portion of his work, with no further remark than that most of our own views, along the boundaries of geological knowledge, find great encouragement from one whose opinions are entitled to so much authority.

Under the head of climatology, and meteorology, and physical geography, Humboldt speaks with a profusion of knowledge and personal experience that no other living man could bring to bear. The passages we select are taken, almost at random, from what it is nearly impossible to extract without mutilation.

The following will show how the author enjoys as he writes:

"A peculiar predilection for the sea, and a grateful remembrance of the impression which it has excited in my mind when I have seen it in the tropics, in the calm of noctural rest or in the fury of the tempest, have alone induced me to speak of the individual enjoyment afforded by its aspect, before I entered upon the consideration of the favorable influences which the proximity of the ocean has incontrovertibly exercised on the cultivation of the intellect and character of many nations—by the multiplication of those bands which ought to encircle the whole of humanity—by affording additional means of arriving at a knowledge of the configuration of the earth, and furthering the advancement of astronomy and of all other physical sciences. A portion of this influence was at first limited to the Mediterranean, * * * but from the sixteenth century it has widely spread, extending to nations who live at a distance from the sea, in the interior of continents. Since Columbus was sent to '*unchain the ocean*' (as the unknown voice whispered to him in a dream, when he lay on a sick bed, near the river Belem), man has ever boldly ventured onward, toward the discovery of unknown regions. * * *

"The progress of climatology has been remarkably favored by the extension of European civilization to two opposite coasts—by its transmission, from our western shores, to a continent which is bounded on the east by the Atlantic ocean. * * *

"In enumerating the causes which produce disturbances in the form of isothermal lines, I would distinguish between those which raise and those which lower the temperature. Among the first is the proximity of a western coast, in the temperate zone; the divided configuration of a continent into peninsulas—into deeply indented bays and inland seas; the prevalence of southerly or westerly winds, on the western shore of a continent, in the temperate northern zone; chains of mountains; the absence of woods in a dry sandy soil; and the constant serenity of the sky in the summer months; and the vicinity of an oceanic current from warmer regions.

"'Among depressing causes, we may enumerate isolated elevation above the level of the sea, as in mountain ranges; the vicinity of an eastern coast in high and middle latitudes; the compact configuration of a continent without shores; the extension of lands to the regions of perpetual ice, without the intervention of a perennially open sea; mountain chains, whose mural form and direction exclude warm winds; extensive forests; frequency of swamps or marshes; cloudy summer skies; and, finally, a very clear wintry sky, favoring the radiation of heat.'"

In treating the causes of change in the weather, he concludes by an acknowledgment of difficulties, owing to the complication of influences, of arriving at sufficiently certain results for practical utility, in advance of a change. But he adds:

"Those who place the value of meteorology in this problematic species of prediction, rather than in the knowledge of the phenomena themselves, are firmly convinced, that this branch of science, on account of which so many expeditions to distant mountainous regions have been undertaken, has not made any considerable progress for centuries past. The confidence which they refuse to the physicist, they yield to the changes of the moon, and to certain days, marked in the calendar by the superstitious of a by-gone age."

In speaking of the universality of animal life, we are taught that the microscope has discovered, that, in fragments of ice from the polar seas, possibly thousands of centuries congealed there, are found vast numbers of silicious-shelled polygastria; and, as in the Gulf of Erebus, at a depth of twelve hundred to sixteen hundred feet, the lead brought up sixty-six species of polygastria and phytolitharia, all living and flourishing where found.

The old discussion, respecting spontaneous generation, is entitled, from recent discoveries, to a reconsideration, from the wonderful manner in which forms and organisms, previously unknown, are introduced and rapidly propagated. Some are rapidly borne upon currents of vapor, and discharged on other parts of the earth. Others revive after ages of torpor, in solid matter, and are equally indifferent to heat and cold. Ehrenberg boiled some of the tardigrade animalculæ, taken from water, in chlorid of lime and sulphuric acid, at a temperature of [illegible] hundred and forty-eight degrees, and, after a torpor and apparent death of twenty eight days, they have revived and commenced moving.*

The first volume closes, and we shall take up the *second* in our next, with a consideration of the varieties of the human race, and a discussion of the probability of its single or multiplex origin. In this the author differs from many modern philosophers, and strongly inclines to the view of past ages—that all have originated from a single pair. Professor Agassiz has intimated his belief that the contrary may be maintained, and that it is intimated and several times implied in sacred history. Dr. Mott, of Mobile, has lately maintained the same views.

ART. VI.—SUPPOSITITIOUS REVIEWS.

TIERRA DE GUERRA.†

So LITTLE is known of Spanish authors of the present day, that it is no wonder a countryman of ours ("Citizen of America," as he styles himself on the title page—America designating, par excellence, the dominant people), who chooses, for reasons best known to himself (perhaps Spanish predilections established during a long residence in Brazil, or want of an Anglo-Saxon publisher), to appear in the bad type and dirty-white sheets of the Senores des Conocido y Nadie, should be known to few out of the island.

It is no concern of mine, whether the work is what it purports to be, an exploring expedition into a region whose existence and statistical vagueness are unquestionable, or a curious romance constructed on a foundation certainly never before so occupied. The vraisemblance pervading the narrative, and abundance of local information coinciding, wherever comparison is practicable, with the researches and conjectures of accredited writers of various dates, would incline one to adopt

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Dr. Riddell, of New Orleans, recently found the monads, from boiled peas, just as active as if they had not been subjected to high heat—has found the cholera insect alive, in water condensed from the breath of a cholera patient in collapse—has subjected the monads, from human-blood globules, to four hours immersion in caustic potash, and still they lived and danced; and I have seen, myself, through his wonderful Spencer lens, the same (apparently) monadic animaculæ in paints, reduced in distilled water, sporting about the particles of pigments, as if they had not been imprisoned (probably in the resin) since the paint was manufactured.

† "Tierra de Guerra. Viages muy peligros y instructivos: por J. L. Eustáquio, &c. Des Conocido y Nadie, Havana."

the former opinion, were it not for the fantastic novelty of many incidents, which, mingled with a view of romantic adventure, rob the book of much authenticity.

The present article, with its successors, is designed to present a version of the blue-covered, unbound volume, lying on my table, in a somewhat more condensed shape than the unpracticed author gives.

In the early part of October, 1842, Senor Eustace was returning from Portalagre (South America), in company with a young Spaniard, Don Lucas, whom he had consented to accompany on a visit to an uncle, a cùra at Santa Cruz. They landed at Izabal, in Guatemala, a town of merchants, and, proceeding thence on horseback to their destination, took up their abode with the priest, whose house was the Dominican monastery of the place, and wore a somewhat desolate look, from the fact of few only of the apartments being occupied. This priest—an odd specimen of a divine, in matter of costume, but none the less pious and learned—first acquainted them with the supposed existence of a kingdom of aborigines in the heart of the sierras, but not before he had inoculated his guests with a mania for antiquities, which survived a thorough ransacking of the neighboring ruins of Quiché (the veritable Quiché stormed by sun-faced Alvarado), and left them still eager to bring *ancianidados* to light.

After some debate, Senores Lucas and Eustace agreed to leave Santa Cruz for a more congenial region, until their thirst for wandering and sight-seeing should again be satisfied. The cùra received this intelligence with a very long face, and remained pondering over the matter with such unusual absense of vivacity, that the others were on the point of relinquishing their excursion, for the time being, when he himself made an offer to that effect. He had only waited until they were at their wit's end for immediate occupation, to confess a project which had occupied his thoughts for years. This was to discover if there were not still existing, in this portion of the continent, a remnant of the original inhabitants, retaining the same customs, language and religion, as not merely the people who held the country at the time of the conquest, but those preceding the Aztec tribes. A tradition to that effect he had just heard at Coban, soon after his arrival from Spain, and found prevalent, throughout Guatemala, among the Indians, when they chose to converse freely on the subject. Many years before, he had himself witnessed what gave him no little faith in the tradition, at the village of Chaxul, in Verapar. The people told him, from the top of the neighboring mountains could be seen a city, which no white man had ever entered, or, at least, from which none had ever returned: that the inhabitants did not mingle with those of the outer country, nor were ever seen by them, and that all they knew of the former was derived from the Candones (undistinguished Indians), who occasionally brought tobacco from the foot of the sierra into the towns to sell. None even of these last named had been allowed to descend into the valley on the other side, but related marvelous accounts of the appearance of the warriors who guarded the heights—calling them, in their dialect, *kuobe* (gods).

Excited by these relations, the cùra, accompanied by a guide, climbed to the summit of the nearest mountain ridge, and, through a cleft in a sheer wall of rock, saw the furthest portion of a narrow plain, in which a cluster of white towers, or buildings, was perceptible, but at a great distance. He did not know whether other structures might not have existed nearer to the position he occupied, for a lower ridge of the sierra cut off the closer view, and the guide either was, or pretended to be, ignorant of any other available peak overlooking the valley. He had always regretted not having made the attempt, at all hazard, to reach the city he beheld, and now suggested that the senores, accustomed, by long wanderings, to hardships, and fond of adventure, should endeavor to get a nearer view of the plain, and learn from the Candones all they knew of the builders and whence they came.

When the padrè began, his audience were lying, at full length, in their hammocks, cigar in mouth, in which lazy attitude they had just discussed a voyage across lake Atitan; but, long before he had concluded, they had struggled into sitting postures, and sat listening with eyes and ears wide open, so surprised and absorbed by his words, that the *puros* went out between their fingers. They quickly convinced their host how much the expedition was to their taste—don Lucas proposing to make all preparations on the spur of the moment and be off the next morning. At this the cùra, who had regained his spirits as their enthusiasm rose, laughed, shook his head, told them to light fresh *puros*, and he would talk the whole matter over with his *muchachos arradizos.* It was impossible, he asserted, to make any discoveries, or even to remain among the Candones, unless one became acquainted with their language, as few of the Christianized Indians in that section of the country could speak Spanish, and he much doubted whether any of those could be induced to act as interpreter, and share the imaginary dangers of the enterprise. The only way to be successful, was to depend solely on themselves, go well armed with side weapons, and carry along a small stock of articles, with the help of which they could assume the character of petty traders, and more easily avoid any suspicion their presence might excite among the wild tribes skirting the sierra. If they adopted this plan, he did not see that they would be likely to encounter any extraordinary perils, and only wished his years and duties were few enough to suffer him to join the party. However, one thing was most essential—a sufficient knowledge of the Maya language to be able to do their own talking; and this, he thought, could be acquired in the course of three months, provided they studied in good earnest, and ceased burrowing, like moles, under old buildings, or turning the heads of the pretty *mozas* at fandangoes. This unlooked-for delay cooled a little the ardor of our heroes, but the wonderful and adventurous nature of the padrè's scheme so well suited their fancy, that they ultimately resolved to carry it into execution, and spare no pains to render its success certain. Accordingly, the very next day, the priest having hunted up, among his old books, a grammar and vocabulary in Maya and Spanish, they commenced their labors — one poring over the grammar while the other committed the phrases to memory, and so alternating. These studies were diversified by various incidents, one of which is worth telling. It soon appeared that they had the benefit of an eccentric associate, who, being a native of the country, caught the phrases more readily than themselves. This fellow student was a vagabond jackdaw, belonging to some member of the cùra's household, quite tame and at liberty to go where he pleased. He had a ludicrous habit of sidling, on tip-toe, up the corridor, as if the last thing he wished was to be intrusive, when he heard them commencing to recite, and, after listening, with head on one side, for a while, would rise sedately on his wings, flap out into the court, and give vent to the most ridiculous jumble of Maya words that ever got into a daw's brain.

As the time fixed for their departure drew near, the cùra sent to Izabal to obtain a stock of merchandise; and, in due time, a sufficient quantity of gay ribbons, knives, beads, and other small articles, was packed in two flat baskets ready to be strapped on their backs; however, they were not to assume their characters until Çhaxul was reached—a couple of *mozos* being deputed to carry their luggage and return with the horses to the monastery. At length, on the morning of the 22d of January, they left Santa Cruz and took the road to San Pedro, a village some leagues off. The padrè accompanied them half way to this place, on muleback, and blessed them fervently at parting. After passing through San Pedro, they ceased to follow the main road, if any deserved the name, and struck into a bridle path to the right, so little used that they were often obliged to dismount and assist in clearing a way with their machètes; but, as it was the most direct route to Chaxul, which could thus be reached in three, instead of four or five, days, they did not object to occasional interruptions of this sort, especially as they were soon surrounded by the grandest forest scenery of the tropics. The direction followed must have been toward the north-west. The scenery, the following day, was wilder and more diversified—the edges of the barrancas being frequently bare of verdure and strewed with enormous fragments of rock, a few hardy trees, only, pushing their way through the crevices, while the valleys beneath were darkened by forests, the branches interlaced and bound together by fantastically twisted creepers. Some of these retreats were inhabited by tribes of monkeys, who broke the deep stillness by their chattering, as they peered down on the company, with their old-looking faces, like little weird men. In other places, they would pass swiftly, in long procession, with the rushing noise of a strong current of wind through the foliage over head—the young imps (old faces still!) clinging to the backs of their dams, and shifting their positions nimbly to get a last view of the party as they receded. The grandest forest, however, through which their course lay, was, strange to tell, an utter solitude; not even the twitter of a bird was to be heard, and the tramp of the horses, and patter of the naked feet of the *mozos* upon the leaves, alone disturbed the death like silence brooding among the towering trunks now growing dim and vague in the increasing twilight. It was, soon after this passage, that they ascended, by a zigzag path, to the summit of a steep acclivity, at the foot of which, on the opposite side, a pool of water reflected the torches of a party of natives, probably fishing, like a cluster of glowworms, by turns visible or obscured as the travelers wound around the hill. Perched upon the highest point they found a dozen Indian huts composing the village of Acajètè. Here they bivouacked in the open air and got nothing to eat, but comforted themselves with the certainty of arriving at Chaxul early the next day. With this object in view, they started before their poverty-stricken hosts were awake, and, traversing a region similar, in many respects, to that of the preceding afternoon, rode into the latter place before noon—the journey being less than twenty miles. The alcalde, although a mestizo, was able to spell through the cùra's letter, and insisted on their possessing themselves of his casa, which, the best in the hamlet, had only two rooms, and was built of adobe like the rest. They learned here that they had crossed a range of the Cordilleras through a gap—the highest point being where the barren summits occurred.

The first thought of the adventurers, was to get a sight of the sierra, said to bound the land, in search of which they came; and, on mentioning their desire to the alcalde, he pointed out a towering range toward the north-east, not over a league distant, upon the naked peaks of which the setting sun shone red as blood. As they did not wish to divulge the true design of their journey, they refrained as yet from all mention of their plans, but expressed a fancy to obtain a view of the unknown city, and asked for a guide to the spot mentioned by the cùra; this their host promised to furnish early the next morning. He asserted that he had more than once climbed to the summit, himself, and imagined he saw figures moving below, but they were so far off he might have been mistaken, although the plain was certainly inhabited, from the fact of smoke being visible occasionally; and, on a very clear day, the white walls in the distance, when the sun shone on them, could plainly be distinguished not to be mere ruins.

They asked if there were not some accessible peak from which the whole valley could be seen. No; the sierra terminated in an abrupt wall of rock, and he knew but of the one gap. Further on toward the north east it was likely there were other clefts; but the **Candones,** who dwelt about the foot of the mountains, were held in such fear, that no one had ever made the attempt to penetrate in that direction: and this was all the information that could be gathered. The party were up before daylight, and, having dismissed the *mozos* with the horses and a message to the cùra, set out with the guide, who proved to be a simple fellow enough but as agile as a monkey at climbing. They first crossed the plain on the edge of which the village is built, and, after walking about two miles in a straight line, descended a deep barranca with the opposite side of which the ascent of the sierra began. This last became rapidly steeper and steeper, hills piled on hills, which, as they advanced, were studded with rocks and showed more stunted vegetation. At length they reached *el duro* (the rock region), and saw on every side enormous fragments of gritty stone heaped together in desolate profusion, above which towered smooth crags piercing the blue overhead Eustace and his associates, clambered laboriously up the almost perpendicular channel of a former torrent, receiving frequent falls on the slippery foothold, and, when nearly exhausted, reached a narrow ledge from which the long expected view broke upon them. As the cùra had described, they gazed through the foot of a chasm or cleft in which they stood; but the perpendicular edges, approaching each other toward the north, left a space open scarce wide enough to thrust the arm between. For this reason only, a remote portion of the valley below was visible; but, to their great satisfaction, the object of their search, a cluster of white spots, which nearer assumed the shape of regular structures of some sort, was plainly discernible. As much of the country as could be seen appeared quite open, and a little to the right the extremity of a lake glittered in the sunshine. They now perceived that it was, as the padrè again had stated, a lower range of the sierra which obstructed the near view; and on this, about five hundred yards off, they had turned their eyes, when all were startled by observing a gigantic figure climbing the opposite summit with apparent ease: but they were able to distinguish nothing definite before his disappearance from their narrow field of observation.

On returning to the village, Senor Eustace found the alcalde had made arrangements for their accommodation with such assiduity, that they could not do less than remain with him the next day, and accordingly postponed the commencement of their enterprise until the morning after. In the meantime, to obtain as much information as practicable, he privately informed his host, whose hospitality and fair share of intelligence had won his good opinion, of a portion of their plans. At first he would not believe his ears. *Que designio demasiádo!* what a daring scheme! *Ustedes séran matados, sin falta*—they would be killed, beyond doubt! and called upon the saints to save him from such *deméncia.* However, when Senor Eustace showed him his weapons and told him, with a laugh, the *Candones* would not find it so easy to "*matarlos,*" kill them, and requested to be told something of the people they were going among, he crossed himself and said, *son malos*—they are not good, and that was all he knew about them. But, on being pressed, admitted they were idolators and reported to be cannibals; but whether they were the people who inhabited the valley on the inner side of the sierra, he could not say. Occasionally, some of the Oristrehstra and La Candroné tribes came to Chaxul to trade, but none of his people had ventured to return these visits of their wild neighbors. The resolute confreres, nothing shaken, requested the alcalde to keep the matter close, and, before daylight the ensuing morning, bidding him farewell, with their light baskets on shoulder and weapons concealed under their clothes, followed the path leading to the sierra, and, descending into the barranca, turned to the right, instead of crossing as had been done two days before. It was still deep night in this vast chasm, and they sat down to await the dawn and discuss the tortillas provided by their host.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VII.—THE LATE CUBA EXPEDITION.

MILITARY SPIRIT OF OUR COUNTRY: ITS DANGERS; OUR NEUTRAL DUTIES AND THE QUESTIONS WHICH ARISE UNDER OUR TREATIES, ETC., WITH SPAIN.

THE history of the world furnishes no instance of a great and growing power intent to pursue its career of progress and improvement without encroaching upon the rights and dominions of its weaker neighbors. In all ages, and under all circumstances, the nature of man is identical. Dependent, he is subservient and cringing; strong and powerful, his ambition and his arrogance tower aloft and are without practical limit. Give him power to oppress, and he will assuredly do it. Wielding the thunders of Jupiter, he will, without any of the discretion of the god, battle and rage, and storm, and be found beating ever against the barriers around him, and leveling them all in the mere joy and consciousness of irresistible might. Man is not the friend, where dominion and power are concerned, but the enemy, of his fellow, and acknowledges the single sentiment:

"The good old rule sufficeth me—the single plan,
That he should take who hath the power
And he should keep who can."

It is customary, now-a-days, to ascribe these attributes peculiar to republican governments, and to none more than our own—a charge which the records of nations will, upon every page, belie. Political institutions, are the mere outward forms, which, though they may partially conceal, can scarcely modify, much less destroy, the inward spirit of man. Some of these forms are, doubtless, more susceptible than others to aggrandizing influences, and it is making small concessions to say, that republics are the most susceptible of all, and hence their greater need of wisdom and virtue. Yet, *forms* are but forms at last, and Cossack or empire, constitutional monarchy or Cromwellian commonwealth, *aristos* or *demos*, the principles of aggression, authority and power, are alike fixed, deep and immovable, the active and the ruling impulse.

Whoever has followed the course of the United States, for the last half century, without noting the growth of a *military spirit*, diffusing itself through all classes of society, and ready, at any moment, to develop itself in every form of action, has observed to very little purpose. It was this spirit which almost defied the vigilance of Washington, when Genet would have precipitated the West upon New Orleans—this, which dictated the schemes of Burr, clamored for a part in the wars of Napoleon, and received with huzzas the proclamation of Mr. Madison's government of hostilities with England. Emboldened by the results of this brilliant war, the American eagle has plumed its pinions for a flight still nearer to the sun. Miniature West Points have sprung up in every State and on every hill top, indurating young sinews for the toils of the camp and the battle field, counseling discipline and strategy, and inspiring admiration for "nodding plumes" and "dazzling crests." The sports of boyhood have even assumed this form, as we find the cannon among the earliest playthings of the child, Napoleon. The tender heart of girlhood looks on and smiles, and, fashioning the stars and the stripes of the beautiful banner, presents it, all eloquent with blushes as with words, and yields her young affections irresistibly captive to the embroidery and the epaulette! How otherwise, in such a school, could American militia bayonets have else than bristled along the Maine frontier, when the occupation of disputed territory was threatened by British soldiery?—how otherwise, but the genius of the wisest and the greatest statesman should be sorely taxed in preventing the execution, by force of arms, of the threat, "the whole of Oregon or none"?—how otherwise, the call of Texas attracts legions of soldiers to her standard from our midst, and the proclamation of war with Mexico is received with illuminations and bon-fires, and the tender, in a few months, as Mr. Polk is said to have admitted, of the *voluntary* services in the field of 200.000 men!

What have been the results of this Mexican war? They are but of yesterday, and we remember the intense excitement, from the Aroostook to the Columbia valley—the illuminations, the bon-fires, the banners, the shouts, the processions; the returning heroes, drawn in chariots over multitudes of heads, as great cities move from their foundations, in the figure of Cicero, to receive them on their triumphant advances; the muffled drum, the reversed arms, the toll of bells, the stiffled sobs, the somber pageant, the eloquent Periclesian eulogiums, the insignia and the reward of the dead warrior, "from the field of his fame, fresh and gory." The people, in a delirium of joy, welcome the return of their champions, and deem no chaplets of fame too glittering for their brows. The warrior captain becomes the civil chief of the great nation—his immediate compatriots, crown congressional, diplomatic, gubernatorial and legislative seats; the subaltern and verriest soldiery have a potency at the ballot box, and distance all competition in the race for office! Shall not they who have borne the heat and burden of the day reap the greater reward? and the arm which was mighty to protect and defend in the hour of danger, must it not be guided by a heart pure and incurrupt, and earnestly solicitous of the public weal, in peace or in war? What higher *preparation* or fitness for office can be required than these?

"The curtain has fallen upon the first act of American history," said the great statesman, who, but the other day, went down into his grave, "and, for the first time, all before me is dark." With the Mexican war the nation entered upon a new career, which was predicted of her, and to which her institutions and position peculiarly inclined—one of *war and conquest!* Shall we essay to lift the curtain form the future?

The brilliant and unparalleled successes of the field, and the high and distinguished honors and emoluments accorded to the warriors and soldiers at home, are not likely, soon, to be forgotten. What can resist intoxications like these? "The way," says Milton—

"The way found prosperous once,
Induces best to hope of like success."

The way has been opened. How ill-appeased, the appetite for conquest, was thought, when the government refrained from disbanding its soldiers abroad, lest their arms should be employed in other service. It was a wise resolve; for, even then, a scheme had been entertained, for overrunning the *Sierra Madre*, at the invitation, we were told, of its inhabitants. Where are these disbanded soldiers and chieftains, who have won more glories than the Roman legions in Britain or in Gaul? Is it not to expect much, that the peaceful pursuits of life can content them soon again? Will not their example be felt upon others, whom we have practically taught, that even *civil* success must be won by the *sword*, and that it was but a vain boast of the Roman orator after all,

"Let arms revere the robe,
The warrior's laurel
Yields to it the palm of eloquence."

The military spirit of the country has been around, and is rife for anything, and woe to the power that shall endeavor to stay it. Administrations will fall to pieces at its blow—statesmen will not dare the ostracism of its voice. The cry of war is flattering to our pride and our power, and they are either of them equal to that of any other nation, ancient or modern. The field before us is boundless, and the power that broods over it, grows every day in energy, in resources and in magnitude, and will be as resistless, in time, as the whirlwind. Armed bands will sally from our ports, as in days of yore from the northern hive, covertly, often openly, in the service of every power that shall offer emolument and glory. Our sympathies with freedom, everywhere, are first the incentive; but there will, in time, be other and less honorable incentives. *We have a destiny to perform*, "a manifest destiny" over all Mexico, over South America, over the West Indies and Canada. The Sandwich Islands are as necessary to our eastern, as the isles of the gulf to our werstern commerce. The gates of the Chinese empire must be thrown down by the men from the Sacramento and the Oregon, and the haughty Japanese tramplers upon the cross be enlightened in the doctrines of republicanism and the ballot box. The eagle of the republic shall poise itself over the field of Waterloo, after tracing its flight among the gorges of the Himalaya or the Ural mountains, and a successor of Washington ascend the chair of universal empire! These are the giddy dreams of the day. The martial spirit must have its employ. The people stand ready to hail to-morrow, with shouts and enthusiasm, a collision with the proudest and the mightiest empire upon earth. The valley of the Mississippi alone, will arm its half million, of stout woodsmen, hardy hunters, deadly rifles, for any field where the cause of liberty and glory shall call. Thus is it.

Have a care how we trifle with this tremendous power, or unduly excite it, and let us not cease to admire the foresight of that Spanish minister, the Count of Aranda, who said, in 1783, "the federal republic is a pigmy in its cradle; she has needed the support of two States, powerful like France and Spain, to obtain independence. The day will come when she will be a giant—a formidable colossus even in these parts. She will forget the services received from those countries, and will only think of her own aggrandizement."

These reflections, rather too much extended, perhaps, have been induced by the late attempt upon the island of Cuba, by a party of adventurers under our flag and embarking from our ports. We are willing, at the outset, to accord, to the leader of the expedition, the highest motives of patriotism and honor, and to the hundreds who flocked around his standard many generous, though, perhaps, misdirected impulses and sympathies, without questioning there were others, at the same time, moved by the most sordid considerations.

The signal failure of the enterprise and all the attendant circumstances of it, have been such as to provoke derision rather than admiration or respect; and the parties having themselves braved the ordeal, must be content with that obloquy which the want of success will ever inspire. The Abbe Raynal, long ago, laid down the principle with unerring precision: "I acknowledge that men accustomed to judge of things by the event, call great and perilous resolutions heroism or madness, according to the good or bad success which attends them." Accordingly, in every part of the Union, denunciation grows pregnant, despite the evidences that the cause of the Cuba invaders and patriots was a few weeks ago a highly popular one, receiving the sympathies of the multitude and attracting, in the highest quarters, the most favorable consideration.

The movers and instigators are brought before the tribunals of the country, for an infraction of its laws, and the statute of 1818 attempted to be enforced against them. Now, although it be true, as we think not improbable, that this offense does not come within the *strict letter* of the statute, however its spirit be clearly isolated, yet, why were the agents of the government so fast asleep, during the many weeks, when it was notorious to the country that an armed expedition was in progress? Will it be maintained that the facilities of communication with Washington are less than with Cuba—the governor-general of which had timely notice of every movement, long even before the sailing of the expedition? Why not use the telegraph in arresting the parties, and preventing this great infraction, as it is alleged, of our neutral duties? The telegraph was not idle at another stage of the business.

It is difficult to distinguish this case, *upon principle*, from that of the Texan revolution, when men, and arms, and amunition were continually being thrown into that country, from our ports, notwithstanding the loud protests of Mexico, with whom we were at peace, and with whom we were bound by all the solemnities of treaty stipulations. The Cubans were not in arms—but revolution may begin long before a standard is erected or a sword drawn from its scabbard. Contributing money, conducting correspondence, are as much overt acts of rebellion or treason as open revolt, and do not distinguish the parties, in the eye of the law and government, from those that are actually in the field. Were the Cubans so far committed? The evidences are not wanting that they were, and that contributions of money and the warmest protestations of sympathy, and vows of hearty coöperation, did emanate from that quarter to encourage and cheer the movement. The rebutting circumstance is the cold reception which they gave to the men at Cardenas. We are bound, in our search after truth, to consider this of little weight. They must have been bold and hardy revolutionists, indeed—supposing that *external* aid was *indispensable* to their cause—to regard that which landed in the Creole as at all adequate to the exigence. A mere handful—where it it believed ten times the number had been expected—and a handful, too, whose movements had long before been known to the authorities of the island—who, with extraordinary vigilance, were thowing armies of disciplined soldiers upon every assailable point and scouring the Gulf with their fleets. The landing at Cardenas could only have been considered a piece of American Quixoticism, of which it seems we are capable when occasion requires.

It is not clear, at this moment, how far the interference of our government was in consonance with the letter and spirit of the treaty stipulations with Spain, or with the provisions of the act of 1818, intended to meet these cases. The instructions which were issued to the naval commanders dispatched in that quarter, have not been officially communicated, and no doubt are misrepresented. That the President may have interdicted the sailing of the expedition, is clear, and, in a high and liberal interpretation of our duties toward a friendly and weaker power, may have intercepted it afterward and prevented a hostile landing, ought not, perhaps, to be questioned. Any other construction would evidence a sort of Carthagenian faith, and that paltering, in a double sense, which would be at war with all international comity. The power of the Executive should be coextensive with the evil intended to be remedied. Had the expedition landed, we may even go a step further, and admit that reinforcements from our country might have been cut off—but it is a high and delicate trust and likely to be abused. Here the duties of neutrality would have been religiously observed and accomplished, and any expression of sympathy or incidental aid, even the slightest, extended toward the captain-general, in preventing or suppressing an intended revolt, or in making captives, would be a gross and arbitrary assumption of power, which could be tolerated in no administration a single hour. There are no proofs of anything like this against the federal authorities, and we are to presume they did their duty.

The United States and Spain have entered into three treaties, viz.: those of 1795, 1802 and 1819. By the first the parties mutually stipulate against their *citizens* taking commissions from any foreign *prince* or *State*, with whom the other party shall be at war, to privateer upon such other party. This treaty is in restriction of the international rights of the parties, which allowed neutrals to afford aid *equally* to belligerents. In this respect the stipulation must be construed strictly. In 1795, the European States were embroiled in wars seemingly interminable, and any treaties framed must have had direct reference to them. There were no wars upon our continent. The Spanish colonies had shown no sign of rebellion. Could these have been within the *immediate* contemplation of the treaty? It is clear they were not within its letter. The treaty cannot be applied to privateers *in the service of the revolted colonists.* These are not "States" and "princes." The terms imply organized sovereignties, and have a significance well defined and understood. It is too late to enter into their discussion. The Supreme Court, in the case of Gelston *vs.* Hoyt (3 Wheaton, 323), excludes their application to *revolutionary governments* not recognized by our own.

But if the late expedition against Cuba was not in violation of the treaty with Spain, are its projectors punishable under our own laws?

There are various statutes providing for our neutral obligations. In 1790, some of the points were embraced. The act of 1794 included many particulars. It uses the words of the Spanish treaty, "foreign princes or States," in whose service only, expeditions against friendly powers are made unlawful. Foreigners, arriving in the country in armed ships, may enlist their own countrymen without violating the act. Augmenting foreign ships of war in our ports, by adding additional guns, is prohibited. Armed expeditions from our ports are unlawful, and the President may use the land and naval forces to arrest, &c.

The act of 1794 was limited to two years, it being not thought necessary to extend it beyond the particular mischief experienced, especially as it was not likely to be a popular act, and tended to increase, unduly, executive power. The European wars still existing, the act was, in 1797, prolonged for three years, and, in 1800, made perpetual — so slowly did it grow into favor with the legislature. Another act, in 1797, prohibits citizens, in the service of others, from fitting out privateers *abroad* against friendly powers. Was this changed in 1817, and made less general? In 1817, the terms of the act of 1794 are enlarged by the introduction of "colony, district or people." The collector is authorized to seize vessels seeking an infraction, and hold them until he can communicate with the President of the United States, unless such vessels give bond they will not violate the laws. Therefore, under this act, as well as by the law of nations, the sailing of private armed vessels was not prohibited.* We naturally ask why the statute adopted the enlarging terms "colony, district or people?" It is pretended they grew out of the decision in Gelston *vs.* Hoyt; but this decision was not made until the year after, though the subject-matter had been under discussion in the State and Federal courts. Was it intended to include every possible case, and were the terms adopted adequate to that end? We are told, by Wheaton, page 476, the object was to reach the case of such unacknowledged States as the South American colonies of Spain, which had not been provided for in the original law. The British government adopted, the year after, in imitation of this statute, but evidently going much further, and to provide for similar cases, the words "colony or district *assuming the powers of a government.*" Therefore, though the late Cuba expedition be considered within the intention of the statute, should the Supreme Court adhere to the principles of the Gelston decision, "colony, district or people" must be interpreted organized existences, having institutions and laws, though, as yet, unrecognized, and not mere individual factions or incoherent masses, and the men who fitted out the expedition and enlisted under the standard of Lopez, were not in the service of any of the parties within the statute. Strictness of interpretation, in penal matters, might very well go this length. The English words "*assuming the powers,*" &c., reach the whole case.

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* See the cases under the act of 1794, in a note appended, by the editor, to the Statutes at Large of the United States, published, a few years ago, under the patronage of Congress.

Another question, under the act of 1718, is, whether, *within the territory* or jurisdiction of the United States, any person *has begun*, or set on foot, or provided the means for, any *military expedition*, or enterprise, to be carried on *from thence* against any foreign prince or State, colony, district, &c.? Legal ingenuity and subtilty may easily be exercised here. The *military* expedition, as such, was not *begun* in the United States, because no organization took place until the parties were beyond our jurisdiction; and it was not *carried on from the United States*, for a like reason. There is no law of Congress to prevent American citizens from emigrating to any foreign territory, and *from there* "setting on foot" an armed expedition, or privateering, against a nation with whom we are at peace—the statute of 1797 having been repealed by that of 1818, which last applies only to privateering *against our own commerce.* The Spanish treaty, referring only to "princes or States," cannot, under the rule of the Supreme Court, apply.

Again, it is *not* a violation of international comity for a neutral to export arms, ammunition and provisions, to the enemies of a belligerent friend, except so far as to subject them to confiscation by the neutral power. Their exportation is not forbid by our laws. Chief Justice Marshall admits that an American citizen may, according to the modern usage of nations, engage in foreign service without compromising the neutrality of his government.*

Upon the whole, we incline to the opinion, that neither the sixth section of the act of 1818, under which General Lopez is indicted, nor any other, will be found sufficient, supposing the facts established, to produce a conviction of the parties implicated; and it will be again incumbent upon Congress to provide for the new class of cases to which our complicated relations with neighboring powers are giving rise. It is ever for the interests of justice and sound government, though temporary mischief accrue, that penal statutes and laws, giving so much latitude to the executive branch of government, and of questioned constitutionality, to say the least, be interpreted with the utmost strictness.

That this, the second unsuccessful attempt upon Cuba within a few months, is but the beginning of the end which looks to the acquisition of that island, by the United States, can hardly be a subject of debate. American and Spanish blood has been shed, and the bitter feelings of consequence, engendered upon both sides, will long survive the occasion, indulging itself in petty acts of jealousy—in ill-concealed hostility—

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* 1 Brock R., 486.

in crimination and recrimination. Already the islanders loudly boast of their heroic onslaught upon the Buena Vista Yankees, and search their vocabulary for every term of opprobrium and contempt to heap upon their heads. Bravely, it must be admitted, almost chivalrously, as they did act, these glorifications are not likely to produce a pleasant tingle upon American ears, unaccustomed to such sounds from others than themselves. It is not improbable that our citizens, now or hereafter in the island, will be subjected to vexatious restrictions, growing out of these matters, and that, in the haughtiness of almost unexpected triumph, the authorities will be guilty of some infractions upon their rights and privileges. The taking of the Georgiana and the Loud, and unlawful detention of their crews and passengers, may already have furnished an instance. In the excited state of public mind, the least pretext would pave the way for other invasions of the island, for which, in a moment, any number of men could be enlisted—and an injury done to American citizens, however slight, would raise a war cry throughout the nation, which even the government could not resist. Besides, where a quarrel becomes, in any sense, desirable, it will not be hard to pick one, as the fable of the wolf and the lamb abundantly proves.

None can doubt, that, at this moment, there is a well fixed and almost universal conviction upon the minds of our people, that the possession of Cuba is indispensable to the proper development and security of the country. We state the fact, without entering into the reasons of it or justifying it, that such a conviction exists. Call it the lust of dominion—the restlessness of democracy—the passion for land and gold, or the desire to render our interior impregnable by commanding the keys of the gulf—the possession of Cuba is still an American sentiment, not to be sure a late, but a growing and strengthening, one. We trust, for the honor of humanity and the faith of treaties, it will lead us into nothing for which our history shall blush.

The path before us, in a state of things like this, is plain. There are honorable means of achieving our purpose, and, if these fail, the purpose itself becomes dishonorable. Let us negotiate with the Cabinet of Madrid, as we did with that of Versailles. Perchance the dangers which environ the island from *within* and from *without*—and those formed must not be underrated, if what is said about the restlessness and revolutionary spirit of the creoles requiring such armies and surveillance to keep them down be true (and the history of Cuba seems to make it probable), nor must the latter be from the considerations we have adverted to, and from the chances of unlawful invasion, or ultimate, open and direct hostilities—will induce the home government to en-certain propositions of *purchase*. A liberal figure would undoubtedly be named by our countrymen Spanish *pride*, to be sure, would be opposed (and this, we know, is without limit), and, to some extent, considering the revenues of the island, Spanish *interest;* but when that government shall have duly reflected how she has lost the whole of her American possessions but this, in most cases without any equivalent—how difficult the possession of colonies becomes now, even to the strongest maritime powers—how contrary to the spirit of the age, and likely to fall into pieces, is all government exercised over distant possessions, growing rich and powerful—how every other nation has been bound to yield to the times, while even the policy itself, of large colonial possessions, is being daily drawn sensibly into question, by those who claim the largest of such possessions—how impossible, in fine, it would be to retain Cuba, in the event of a general war—it seems, to us, a wise statesman might put off, like Bonaparte, all idle pride and close in, at once, with any terms that shall appear, in every respect, fair and just. Such terms would, undoubtedly, be offered. Should these negotiations fail, honor and the preservation of national faith demand, that we give no countenance to any movements hostile to the cause of Spain.

The records of diplomacy abound with complaints of the violation of neutral duties, by the extension of sympathy or succor, of one sort or another, to one or more of the belligerent parties. Perhaps there are no more difficult and arduous duties than those involved in a conscientious neutrality, and none in whose performance more sleepless vigilance of government is required. We have had discussions of this kind with Mexico, with England, with Spain and with France, and they are never likely to cease until the sympathies and interests of individuals shall have lost their controlling power.

The remark is often ventured, that Great Britain and the other powers of the world will not look on, tranquilly, upon the continual accessions of territory and sovereignty, made or in prospect, by our country. We have already had a protest in the case of Texas, and, what is equivalent, in that of Cuba; and were once indignant with Mr Guizot's "Balance of Power" declarations. This balance power, it is pretended, is an exploded dogma of past times and not again to be revived. We delude ourselves in this. The European States are as little disposed as ever, to suffer the undue and colossal aggrandizement of any power, upon principles as nearly akin to that of self defense in individuals as any principles can be. The world has had enough of the *universal domain* of the Cæsars and the Bonapartes; and our own position and necessities, as one of the great family of nations, will transform us, in time, into as great sticklers for the European doctrine as either France or England now are*

Though it be true, that each nation is a sovereign, acknowledging no arbiter or judge, "an apprehension of the possible consequences of the undue aggrandizement of any one nation upon the independence and safety of others, has induced the States of modern Europe to observe, with systematic vigilance, every material disturbance in the equilibrium of their respective forces." Great dangers, no doubt, grow out of the enforcement of these principles of *intervention*, as their whole history evinces. We will advert to a few of the most noted instances upon record of such interventions: The confederated wars in reduction of the pretensions of Spain and the House of Austria, under Charles V and his successors; the protection, by the great Catholic and Protestant powers, given to their adherents in the struggles of the Reformation in Germany; the alliance of the Protestant States of Europe, with the House of Austria, against Louis XIV, after the treaty of Westphalia, and the interference, of all these parties, in the revolutionary movements of England, under the Stuarts; the coalitions against France, after her revolution of 1789, giving rise to the Holy Alliance, and the treaty of *Aix la Chapelle*, which settled the principles of intervention between the contracting powers; the position of Austria, Russia and Prussia, in the Neapolitan revolution of 1820; the congress of Verona in 1822, and the armed interference of France, under Austrian, Russian and Prussian countenance, in the affairs of Spain and the overthrow of the Cortes; the interference of the allied powers in the contest between Spain and her colonies, protested against by the United States and by Great Britain, in 1823 (President Monroe maintained, "it was impossible the allied powers should extend their political system to any portion of these continents, without endangering the peace and happiness of the United States"); the military aid extended by England to the regency of Portugal, against the forces of the Pretender; the treaty for the pacification of Greece, in 1827, between France, England and Russia, and the *enforced* suspension of hostilities by the allied squadrons; the interference of the five powers, in 1839–'40, in the affairs of the Ottoman empire, as also in those of Belgium several years before. There are, also, numerous interferences, by virtue of treaty compacts, etc., which will readily suggest themselves, and among the chief of which are those relating to the succession of the Spanish and Portuguese crowns, etc.

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* See our notice, in Vol. vii, Commercial Review, of a pamphlet by Mr. Trescott, of Charleston, upon American Diplomatic Policy.

In the remarks we have been making, it has not been thought worth while, to consider the opposition, which it is intimated, on the strength of Mr. Bulwer's letter, Great Britian will make to the cession of the island of Cuba. Probably, she will be irritated, and use language of high and courtly displeasure. Such could have no effect, and must soon soften down that government, even if she had the right with her—being hardly silly enough to go to war upon such a pretense. In the end, her acquiescence may be counted on, reluctant though it be. Admitting the existence of her mortgages, and her *secret treaty* (it is a mistake to say our government does not recognize, and even enter into, secret treaties [*]), an equitable spirit upon our part will satisfy them all. The matter is plainly open for negotiation, and will, most likely, enter into the next presidential canvass. The beginning of the end is now.

There are those who will take higher ground, and deny that the rights or protests of any foreign government could be recognized or heard, in plain contravention of the doctrines so solemnly laid down by the administration of Mr. Monroe as constituting our American system. Whatever virtue there may have been in such a position, it cannot be questioned the late *Nicaragua treaty* seriously undermines if it does not destroy it.[†] We are far from condemning the treaty on that account The Monroe doctrine, without doubt, has been stretched far beyond its original intention, and refined to a degree which is altogether untenable. It sets up pretensions as *exclusive* as that of China or the empire of Japan, and, if admitted, in defiance of the interests of all European powers, would, by a parity of reasoning, exclude us forever from all transatlantic, European, or Asiatic influence. The rule should work both ways, and in the growth of a great power like ours, whose mission it is difficult to circumscribe, must in its remote results, develop as much mischief as present benefit. We prefer its abandonment, as fraught with little, if any danger, and the adoption of the higher and more liberal policy, that each of the great family of civilized nations, when not limited by treaties, has *equal* right and influence in the affairs of all the others, and *exclusive* right only in its own.

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[*] Vid. Com. Review, Vol. vii, 474; Pitkins's U. S., p. 21, etc.

[†] The Monroe doctrine has thus been classified:

"1st, That there must be no further colonization, on either of the American continents, by any European power; and,

"2d, That there must be no interference, by European powers, with the independent States in this hemisphere; because,

"3d, Such interference, politically, or *otherwise* was dangerous to our own independence and the welfare and union of the States, and fatal to their domestic and internal policy."

In the Nicaragua treaty, "the United States agree that England *shall* become shareholders in this isthmus route, and all other routes leading over the continents from ocean to ocean. This is the first abandonment of the doctrine—because it virtually recognizes a *claim* upon the part of our transatlantic ally to a portion of the territory coequal with ourselves, and that right is secured to all other sections of Central America, through which the contracting parties may wish to extend improvements."

"The mere fact that any treaty is necessary with Great Britain, touching the Nicaragua route, is sufficient to show that we have surrendered something."

ART. VIII.—PROTECTION OF THE LOW LANDS OF THE MISSISSIPPI.—No. 2.

In a communication to the last number of the Commercial Review, I applied the principles laid down by Dubuat, in his work on hydro-dynamics, to the question of "cut-offs" in the Mississippi.[*] Having taken up the subject, I have thought it worth while to continue the investigation, and to apply the formula of Dubuat to various phenomena of the Mississippi—particularly to those which have the most immediate interest in connection with the various schemes proposed for relieving the river from a portion of its flood waters.

My attention has been more particularly drawn to this subject from reading the interesting pamphlet of Professor Riddell on these subjects, and I have thought that it would be interesting and useful to extend the investigations somewhat further than he has done, and to apply to them the rigorous formula of Dubuat.

The subject is an extensive one, and I have only been able to spare the time to give it a superficial study; but, as the data we have to base our conclusions upon are very imperfect, it would be a waste of time to make them the basis of very extensive and nice computations. I believe that the various phenomena of the Mississippi can be subjected to accurate calculation with almost the same nicety as the running of water in a pipe, were the requisite data obtained. Such data can only be acquired by a long series of observations. They should be carried on by observers stationed at different points from the mouth to the northern limits of the State, at least, and should be extended through several years. In addition to this, some knowledge of the river, up as far as the mouth of the Ohio, is necessary, and all the principal tributaries should be studied, so as to ascertain the periods and durations of their floods, the effect which each, individually, produces upon the elevation of the main stream, the character of the sediment which each brings down, &c.[†]

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[*] Your printer erred twice in that article, in the name "Raccourci cut-off," page 95.

[†] I think proper to mention, in this place, that, in 1838, an accurate and scientific survey of the lower portion of the river, from Fort Jackson down, was made, under direction of Captain Talcott, at that time superintending the works of improvement at the mouth of the river; and that this survey embraced *every thing* that science could require. The velocity at the surface, mid-depth and bottom, were measured, in the middle of the river, and on each side, at a quarter of the width from the banks, the section accurately measured, the discharge measured, the law

When a mass of data like this is collected, a safe theory of the Mississippi river can be formed, and not before. With such data as we have, we can only obtain approximate results and form general conclusions. In the following calculations, I have carried the investigation as far, I think, as it is profitable to do. I have investigated the following points:

1. How much ought the surface of the river to have been lowered at Carrollton by the Bonnet Carré crevasse, assuming the discharge of that crevasse at 37,500 cubic feet per second, as estimated by Professor Riddell?
2. How much ought the surface of the river at Carrollton to be lowered by a waste wier, at Bonnet Carré, capable of discharging (according to his estimate) 120,000 cubic feet per second?
3. How much ought the surface of lake Pontchartrain to be raised by being made the recipient of the latter volume of water?
4. What will be the ultimate effect, on the bed of the river, of discharging, by waste wiers or other lateral outlets, so large a volume of water?
5. What is the effect of the levee system on the bed of the river? Does it cause it to rise, or does it, on the contrary, have the opposite effect?

The method of Dubuat for determining the change in elevation of the surface of a river, from increasing or diminishing its waters, is—knowing the width and depth (assimilated to a rectangle) of a river discharging a known volume of water—to calculate what that depth must be (the bottom, of course, remaining unchanged), should that volume of water be increased or diminished a certain quantity. The difference between the original and calculated depths will be the amount that the surface of the river will be raised or lowered.

In making the calculation, I take the data of Professor Riddell, because I find them to be pretty consistent with theory, and in order that the results may be compared with his. They are as follows:

$D = 600{,}000$ cubic feet per second, the mean high water discharge.
$r =$ mean radius, a hydraulic mean depth (to be calculated).
$b =$ the denominator of the fraction expressing the declivity, which, if the river surface at Carrollton is 15′ above tide, and 110 miles from the mouth, is 38720.
$l =$ width of river, or 2,350 feet.
$h =$ the rectangular depth, assumed by Professor Riddell, in his pamphlet, at 75 feet; but, as he has since stated it to me, 78 feet.

Now, as this latter element is to be the standard of comparison, by which the calculated elevation or depression of the river is to be ascertained, and as the observations have been too cursory to fix all the data with positive accuracy, it becomes necessary, before entering into further calculation, to

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of *deposit* of *sediment* investigated, and some very curious results obtained on this subject. Separate charts were made of each of the passes, and the soundings given with the utmost accuracy. These results are of the highest value, and now possess a peculiar interest; but they are, at present, utterly unknown. Nothing, save a brief general report of Captain Talcott, and a small general chart, the reduction of a reduction, were ever published. The details are contained, principally, in the reports of the assistant engineers, and have never seen the light. The whole, it is presumed, can be obtained from the Topographical Bureau at Washington.

subject this assumed depth to the theory, and make it consistent with the other data.

The formula of Dubuat is (modified so as to be expressed in English feet):

$$h = \frac{\mathrm{D}}{l(\sqrt{r}-0.0288)(\frac{88.6}{\sqrt{\mathrm{B}}}-0.0866)}$$

in which r, the mean radius $= \frac{lh}{l+2h}$ and $\sqrt{\mathrm{B}} = \sqrt{b} - \mathrm{L.}^{*}\sqrt{b+1.6}$.

The above equation can only be solved by substitution and approximation; and, after many trials, I find $h = 79.10'$, which will therefore be considered the original rectangular depth of the river.

Assuming, now, $\mathrm{D} = 562{,}500$ cubic feet per second, which supposes 37,500 cubic feet to be thrown off, as Professor Riddell estimates, by the Bonnet Carre crevasse, the value of h must be calculated for this reduced discharge. This, as before, can only be done by supposition and substitution, and, as every change in the assumed value of h involves a corresponding change in the value of b, or the declivity, the operation is extremely laborious.

After many trials, I find 78.05 feet to satisfy, pretty nearly, the equation, and this, therefore, is the new depth of the river, and the difference between this and 79.10 feet, or 1.05 ft., is the depression of surface produced at Carrollton by the crevasse, supposing it to discharge only the quantity of water estimated by Professor Riddell.

The Professor calculates this depression at 1.40′, but he does not profess to use a rigorous formula, and he afterward states, that the depression at Carrollton and New Orleans may be considered as "about one foot," which is almost precisely what I have calculated.

A similar operation will determine the depression of surface, on the supposition that 120,000 cubic feet per second are thrown off by a waste wier, and the depression thus determined is 3.40 feet.

I believe these determinations are as rigorous as analysis can make them, with the imperfect data we possess. No account is taken, indeed, of the effect of the bends of the river on the velocity, but there is but one considerable bend below New Orleans, and, as the retarding effect is pretty nearly the same for the full and diminished discharge, the errors of the formula, arising from that source, will nearly neutralize each other.

The third point to be treated is the elevation of lake Pontchartrain, by throwing into it, through a waste wier, a volume of 120,000 cubic feet of water per second. There is, at the outset, an evident inconsistency between the facts observed during the past winter and Professor Riddell's calculations. According to him, 119,370 cubic feet of water, thrown into the lake, will only raise its lower end 2.4 inches; and he estimates, at the same time, that only about one-third of this quantity, or 37,250 cubic feet per second, has actually been thrown into it, which should, of course, have raised it still less. So small an elevation would scarcely have been observed; yet it is an indisputable fact, that the lake has been constantly, since the occurrence of the crevasse, much above its ordinary level.

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* Hyperbolic logarithm.

It is to be regretted that no accurate registers, of the level of the lake in former years, exist, by which to make a comparison. Sergeant Bosworth, who has been stationed at Fort Pike for a number of years, thinks that the lake has been eighteen inches to two feet higher, during the last, than during previous winters, and he states that this estimate is confirmed by others. I think this is too high an estimate; that it is rather taken from observations of *extreme* differences than a fair mean. Captain Hiern, of the Oregon, thinks the average increased height might be stated at one foot, and I think this is a full allowance. I endeavored to have some measurements made at Fort Pike, by which to determine the point, but the lake has been so constantly high, lately, through the effect of continued easterly winds, that the old water marks have been inaccessible.

I have calculated the elevation of the lake required, in order to throw off, through the Rigolets and Chef Menteur passes, a volume of 120,000 cubic feet per second; or, what is the same thing, to maintain a velocity through these passes of 1.283 ft. per second. This I do by finding the value of b, or the slope which will satisfy Dubuat's formula for the velocity:

$$V = 1.283 \text{ ft.} = (\sqrt{r} - 0.0288)\left(\frac{88.6}{\sqrt{B}} - 0.0866\right),$$

taking the areas of the passes as estimated by Professor Riddell.

I find, by this computation, 6½ inches to be the required elevation. I should mention, however, that, in this, I have taken the length of the Rigolets at nine miles, instead of six miles, as assumed by Professor Riddell. By a map in my office, made by the topographical engineers, this pass is over nine miles long. Latourette's map makes it about the same, and, lastly, Captain Hiern, of the Oregon, estimates it at nine miles.

This elevation of 6½ inches is hardly sufficient to account for the observed elevation of the lake, but it is likely that this is not all the fall that is actually necessary. You are aware that the lake becomes contracted between Point aux Herbes and the northern shore, at a distance of about six miles from the commencement of the Rigolets pass, to a width of only three miles; and that, between the Point aux Herbes and the entrance of the Rigolets, an extensive shoal, having but six feet of water upon it, is located. It is likely, therefore, that a considerable fall is necessary between "Point aux Herbes" and the entrance of the Rigolets. There are no sufficient data upon which to attempt a calculation. In addition to the above, Professor Riddell has calculated that a fall of nine-tenths of an inch is necessary in the lake itself. Taking all these together, it is likely that we can account for an elevation of nine or ten inches, and, perhaps, one foot, in the present level of the lake; and I am inclined to think that this is about the true *mean increased elevation* during the past winter. But, to get as much as that, we must believe that near 120,000 cubic feet, per second, of water, have been thrown into the lake, instead of 37,500. It is difficult to estimate the real quantity of water which has escaped from the river. It is stated that the river has been two feet lower at New Orleans than it was last year. To produce this reduction, I find that it would be necessary to throw off 75,000 cubic feet of water per second; and if, as stated, the river has been higher above than it was last year, a still greater quantity must have been thrown off — perhaps as much as the quantity I have taken as the basis of calculation, viz.: 120,000 cubic feet.

The elevation of the lake is not, however, a matter of such vital importance, so long as it is not permitted to exceed ten inches or one foot (though we have known it, *in its natural state*, to overflow the rear of New Orleans, from high and long-continued south-easterly winds), as the probable effects, on the bed of the river, likely to be produced by throwing off, through waste wiers, a portion of its waters. It is this point which I shall now consider.

I have shown that the throwing off of 120,000 cubic feet of water per second, would reduce the surface level of the river at Carrollton 3.4 feet. This would be the *first and immediate result*, supposing the bed to remain *unchanged*. But this result will be accompanied with a reduction of velocity from 3.227 feet per second to 2.70 feet per second.

Now, it is pretty well established, that certain relations exist between the configuration of the bed of a stream and the velocity of its current. This relation is the most clearly discernible, and capable of being subjected to calculation, in rivers (like the lower Mississippi) whose beds have been formed of materials brought down by their own currents; in other words, which have *made and shaped their own beds*.

I find this principle laid down in the work of Frisi "On Rivers and Torrents," which was placed in my hands by W. S. Campbell. He quotes and confirms the rules established by another engineer, Guglielmini, which are, that "the greater the quantity of water a river carries, the *less will be its fall*," and "the greater the force of the stream the less will be the slope of its bed." And, again, "the slope of the bottom in rivers will diminish in the same proportion in which the body of water is increased," and vice versa. These rules have their explanation in the facts, that the beds of rivers, of the character above mentioned, are capable of resisting, unchanged, only a certain velocity of current; and, on the other hand, that the sedimentary matter, contained in the river water, requires a certain degree of velocity to keep it in suspension. From the counteracting tendencies of the above two causes, a mean becomes established, at which the current ceases to deposit its sediment, and the bottom ceases to be abraded; in other words, the bottom becomes permanent. But if, from any cause, such as throwing off a portion of the water through a water wier, the velocity of the current is diminished, it is no longer able to maintain its sediment in suspension, but will continue to deposit in its bed, until, through the elevation of the bed, its velocity again becomes, what it was before it was disturbed, sufficient to maintain its sediment in permanent suspension.

Now, it is a well-established principle in hydro-dynamics, that the less the volume of water the greater the surface slope required, in order to maintain a given velocity. Paradoxical as it may appear, then, it is a certain result of the foregoing principles, that the more water we throw off by waste wiers, *after we have passed that limit at which the velocity is just sufficient to keep the bed clear,* the higher will the surface *ultimately* become. What that limit is, I do not pretend to decide. If we assume that the present velocity is necessary for that purpose, and that any diminution will cause a deposit in the bottom, then we cannot throw off a single cubic foot of the water, now necessary to maintain this velocity, without causing an ultimate rise both in the bed and surface. The fact of this rise and its amount, is as capable of rigid demonstration as any problem in mathematics.

Taking the data of Professor Riddell, I find 3.227 feet per second to be the velocity due to a discharge of 600,000 feet per second and a fall of fifteen feet from Carrollton to the sea. Throwing off 37,500 cubic feet, through a waste wier, would reduce the velocity to 3.066 feet per second, and, the first velocity being supposed necessary to prevent deposit, the bed and surface must rise until the original velocity of 3.227 feet is restored. From the formula,

$$V=3.227\text{ feet}=(\sqrt{r}-0.0288)(\frac{88.6}{\sqrt{B}}-0.0866),$$

it will be found, that the fall from Carrollton to the Balize must be 15.75 feet, and that the rectangular mean depth must be reduced to 74.17 feet, in order to reacquire this velocity with the diminished discharge; or, in other words, the surface of the river will ultimately rise, at Carrollton, 9 inches, and the bed 5.78 feet.

Making the same calculation for a reduction of 120,000 feet per second, in the discharge, and it will give an ultimate increased elevation of surface, at Carrollton, of 2 feet 9 inches, and an elevation of bed of 18 feet 6 inches. (In these calculations, the mean width, 2,350 feet, is supposed constant.)

It is necessary to observe, that the above results arise from the supposition that the several volumes of 37,500 and 120,000 cubic feet per second, are thrown off from the *original* 600,000 cubic feet, assumed to be the natural high-water discharge of the river, and necessary in order to keep the bottom permanent. If, however, observation should show that the floods of the river are yearly *increasing,* and that more than the above volume, necessary to maintain the velocity of the regimen, comes down, *then* all the *surplus* may be thrown off through a waste wier, without any tendency to raise the bed; on the contrary, the evils of too high a velocity, such as the rapid abrasion of the banks, will be thus avoided. This is a matter for future observation. Nor is the above quantity of 600,000 cubic feet per second taken as absolute: it is assumed as the basis of calculation for want of a better. Prolonged observation must show the exact volume and velocity necessary for the maintenance of the regimen of the river. Any reduction of this ascertained volume, by lateral discharges, must, ultimately, raise the bed and surface of the river; but the surplus may be thrown off with safety and with beneficial effects.

The increased elevation of the surface of a river, by diminishing its volume, paradoxical as it may appear, is not unconfirmed by observation. I had, somewhat to my own surprise, arrived at these results, by an application of well-established principles to the facts of the case; but my attention has since been directed, by Mr. Campbell, to several instances mentioned by the Italian engineer, Frisi, of such effects being actually produced from such causes.

The division of the Rhine into several branches, near its mouth—said to have been commenced by the Romans—is said to have caused a constant rising in the beds of these diminished branches. A waste wier, proposed to relieve the lock from its surplus waters, was opposed by the engineer, Gennete, on the ground that it could have no good effect.

Two relieving sluices, made in the Celone, are said to have caused the filling up and loss of the principal trunk of that river; and it is likewise said, that the lateral discharges, made in the Adige, have only produced a heightening of the bed, and thereby rendered the floods more dangerous.

The results I have given being, as they are, rigid deductions from well-established principles governing the phenomena of rivers, and confirmed by experience, we cannot be too cautious about throwing off the waters of the Mississippi, through lateral outlets, or tampering with it in any way. That a certain amount of water might be thrown off, in *extreme stages*, with safety and beneficial results, appears probable; but it is extremely doubtful whether a waste wier, into lake Pontchartrain, could be kept open. As the river commences falling, the velocity in the outlet will be checked and a deposit will form. This, during the summer and autumn, will become covered with a dense growth of reeds, grass, &c., which would still further obstruct the discharge of the next year; so that, in a few years, there would be no other result of the heavy expenditure of making this outlet, than a strip of high land from the river to the lake.

I have but few words to say on the subject of levees. If the results I have given in this paper are correct, then the levee system, instead of favoring, as is alleged, the tendency of the bed of the river to rise, has precisely the reverse effect. By confining the waters within their limits, they increase the velocity and abrading power of the current, causing a deepening, rather than an elevation, of the bed. This velocity may become too great for convenience, causing a rapid destruction of the banks; but the tendency to prevent the elevation of the bed is not the less true. It may safely be affirmed, therefore, that the bed of the river is now lower than it would have been, had no levees been made.

If, as is probable, all schemes for relieving the river from its surplus waters, by lateral discharges, fail, then levees must remain, as they are now, our only safeguard. The great difficulty now is, that the levees are entirely inadequate to their object. A study of the levee system in Holland, where much greater heights of water, and even the waves of the ocean, are to be contended with, would give Louisianians some light as to what a safe levee should be.

The levees should be much wider and higher than they now are. The carriage road, instead of being along side, might be on their tops, which would keep them always compact and the road itself dry. When the bank is curving, the levee should be so far removed from the river as to be beyond all possibility of danger.

An efficient system of control and management should be established, so that the welfare of a whole community should not be hazarded by the negligence of an individual. With such a levee system, I think the crevasses we hear of in almost every day's paper—so destructive to property, and likely to be so permenently injurious to Louisiana, should they not be hereafter prevented—need not occur. I am yours, very respectfully, &c.,

J. G. Barnard,
Brev. Maj. Engineers.

ART. IX.—SLAVERY.

MR. CALHOUN'S LETTER TO MR. KING.

BRITISH MOVEMENTS IN TEXAS; HER EMANCIPATION SCHEMES AND THEIR FAILURE; HER POLICY IN REGARD TO SLAVERY.

[This celebrated letter of the great American statesman, now passed from the scene of action, has been universally admired, as presenting one of the most powerful and irresistible arguments against the emancipation and abolition movements of the age. Its publication, six years ago, produced a sensation in Europe, as well as in our own country, which can never be forgotten. Yielding to the solicitations of many of our subscribers, and in the conviction we could do better service to the cause of the South, we publish in our pages this letter, copies of which having become very rare among us.—Ed.]

Department of State, *Washington*, *August* 12, 1844.

Sir—I have laid your dispatch, No. 1, before the President, who instructs me to make known to you that he has read it with pleasure, especially the portion which relates to your cordial reception by the king, and his assurance of friendly feelings toward the United States. The President, in particular, highly appreciates the declaration of the king, that, in no event, would any steps be taken by his government in the slightest degree hostile, or which would give to the United States just cause of complaint. It was the more gratifying from the fact, that our previous information was calculated to make the impression, that the government of France was prepared to unite with Great Britain in a joint protest against the annexation of Texas, and a joint effort to induce her government to withdraw her proposition to annex, on condition that Mexico should be made to acknowledge her independence. He is happy to infer from your dispatch, that the information, as far as it relates to France, is, in all probability, without foundation. You did not go further than you ought in assuring the king, that the object of annexation would be pursued with unabated vigor, and in giving your opinion, that a decided majority of the American people were in its favor, and that it would certainly be annexed at no distant day. I feel confident that your anticipation will be fully realized at no distant period. Every day will tend to weaken that combination of political causes which led to the opposition of the measure, and to strengthen the conviction that it was not only expedient, but just and necessary.

You were right in making the distinction between the interest of France and England, in reference to Texas—or rather, I would say, the apparent interests of the two countries. France cannot possibly have any other than commercial interest in desiring to see her preserve her separate independence; while it is certain that England looks beyond to political interests, to which she apparently attaches much importance. But, in our opinion, the enterest of both against the measure is more apparent than real; and that neither France, England, nor even Mexico herself, has any in opposition to it, when the subject is fairly viewed and considered in its whole extent and in all its bearings. Thus viewed and considered, and assuming that peace, the extension of commerce, and security, are objects of primary policy with them, it may, as it seems to me, be readily shown, that the policy on the part of those powers which would acquiesce in a measure so strongly desired by both the United States and Texas, for their mutual welfare and safety, as the annexation of the latter to the former, would be far more promotive of these great objects than that which would attempt to resist it.

It is impossible to cast a look at the map of the United States and Texas, and to note the long, artificial, and inconvenient line which divides them, and then to take into consideration the extraordinary increase of population and growth of the former, and the source from which the latter must derive its inhabitants, institutions and laws, without coming to the conclusion that it is their destiny to be united, and, of course, that annexation is merely a question of *time* and *mode*. Thus regarded, the question to be decided would seem to be, whether it would not be better to permit it to be done now, with the mutual consent of both parties, and the acquiescence of these powers, than to attempt to resist and defeat it. If the former course be adopted, the certain fruits would be the preservation of peace, great extension of commerce by the rapid settlement and improvement of Texas, and increased security, especially to Mexico. The last, in reference to Mexico, may be doubted; but I hold it not less clear than the other two.

It would be a great mistake to suppose that this government has any hostile feelings toward Mexico, or any disposition to aggrandize itself at her expense. The fact is the very reverse.

It wishes her well, and desires to see her settled down in peace and security; and is prepared, in the event of the annexation of Texas, if not forced into conflict with her, to propose to settle with her the question of boundary, and all others growing out of the annexation, on the most liberal terms. Nature herself has clearly marked the boundary between her and Texas by natural limits too strong to be mistaken. There are few countries whose limits are so distinctly marked; and it would be our desire, if Texas should be united to us, to see them firmly established, as the most certain means of establishing permanent peace between the two countries, and strengthening and cementing their friendship. Such would be the certain consequence of permitting the annexation to take place now, with the acquiescence of Mexico; but very different would be the case if it should be attempted to resist and defeat it, whether the attempt should be successful for the present or not. Any attempt of the kind would, not improbably, lead to a conflict between us and Mexico, and involve consequences, in reference to her and the general peace, long to be deplored on all sides, and difficult to be repaired. But should that not be the case, and the interference of another power defeat the annexation for the present, without the interruption of peace, it would but postpone the conflict, and render it more fierce and bloody whenever it might occur. Its defeat would be attributed to enmity and ambition on the part of that power by whose interference it was occasioned, and excite deep jealousy and resentment on the part of our people, who would be ready to seize the first favorable opportunity to effect by force, what was prevented from being done peaceably by mutual consent. It is not difficult to see how greatly such a conflict, come when it might, would endanger the general peace, and how much Mexico might be the loser by it.

In the mean time, the condition of Texas would be rendered uncertain, her settlement and prosperity in consequence retarded, and her commerce crippled, while the general peace would be rendered much more insecure. It could not but greatly affect us. If the annexation of Texas should be permitted to take place peaceably now (as it would, without the interference of other powers), the energies of our people would, for a long time to come, be directed to the peaceable pursuits of redeeming, and bringing within the pale of cultivation, improvements and civilization, that large portion of the continent lying between Mexico on one side, and the British possessions on the other, which is now, with little exception, a wilderness with a sparse population, consisting, for the most part, of wandering Indian tribes.

It is our destiny to occupy that vast region; to intersect it with roads and canals; to fill it with cities, towns, villages and farms; to extend over it our religion, customs, constitution and laws; and to present it as a peaceful and splendid addition to the domains of commerce and civilization. It is our policy to increase, by growing and spreading out into unoccupied regions, assimilating all we incorporate: in a word, to increase by accretion, and not, through conquest, by the addition of masses held together by the cohesion of force. No system can be more unsuited to the latter process, or better adapted to the former, than our admirable federal system. If it should not be resisted in its course, it will probably fulfill its destiny without disturbing our neighbors, or putting in jeopardy the general peace; but if it be opposed by foreign interference, a new direction would be given to our energy, much less favorable to harmony with our neighbors, and to the general peace of the world.

The change would be undesirable to us, and much less in accordance with what I have assumed to be primary objects of policy on the part of France, England and Mexico.

But, to descend to particulars: it is certain that while England, like France, desires the independence of Texas, with the view to commercial connections; it is not less so, that one of the leading motives of England for desiring it, is the hope that, through her diplomacy and influence, negro slavery may be abolished there, and ultimately, by consequence, in the United States, and throughout the whole of this continent. That its ultimate abolition throughout the entire continent is an object ardently desired by her, we have decisive proof in the declaration of the Earl of Aberdeen delivered to this department, and of which you will find a copy among the documents transmitted to Congress with the Texan treaty. That she desires its abolition in Texas, and has used her influence and diplomacy to effect it there, the same document, with the correspondence of this department with Mr. Pakenham, also to be found among the documents, furnishes proof not less conclusive. That one of the objects of abolishing it there, is to facilitate its abolition in the United States, and throughout the continent, is manifest from the declaration of the abolition party and societies, both in this country and in England. In fact, there is good reason to believe that the scheme of abolishing it in Texas, with the view to its abolition in the United States and over the continent, originated with the prominent members of the party in the United States; and was first broached by them in the (so called) World's Convention, held in London in the year 1840, and through its agency brought to the notice of the British government.

Now, I hold, not only that France can have no interest in the consummation of this grand scheme, which England hopes to accomplish through Texas, if she can defeat the annexation; but that her interest, and those of all the continental powers of Europe, are directly and deeply opposed to it.

It is too late in the day to contend that humanity or philanthropy is the great object of the policy of England in attempting to abolish African slavery on this continent. I do not question but humanity may have been one of her leading motives for the abolition of the African slave trade, and that it may have had a considerable influence in abolishing slavery in her West India possessions—aided, indeed, by the falacious calculation that the labor of the negroes would be at least as profitable, if not more so, in consequence of the measure. She acted on the principle that tropical products can be produced cheaper by free African labor and East India labor, than by slave labor. She knew full well the value of such products to her commerce, navigation, navy, manufactures, revenue and power. She was not ignorant that the support and the maintenance of her political preponderance depended on her tropical possessions, and had no intention of diminishing their productiveness, nor any anticipation that such would be the effect when the scheme of abolishing slavery in her colonial possessions was adopted. On the contrary, she calculated to combine philanthropy with profit and power, as is not unusual with fanaticism. Experience has convinced her of the fallacy of her calculations. She has failed in all her objects. The labor of her negroes has proved far less productive, without affording the consolation of having improved their condition.

The experiment has turned out to be a costly one. She expended nearly one hundred millions of dollars in indemnifying the owners of the emancipated slaves. It is estimated that the increased price paid since, by the people of Great Britain, for sugar and other tropical productions, in consequence of the measure, is equal to half that sum; and that twice that amount has been expended in the suppression of the slave trade; making, together, two hundred and fifty millions of dollars as the cost of the experiment. Instead of realizing her hope, the result has been a sad disappointment. Her tropical products have fallen off to a vast amount. Instead of supplying her own wants and those of nearly all Europe with them, as formerly, she has now, in some of the most important articles, scarcely enough to supply her own. What is worse, her own colonies are actually consuming sugar produced by slave labor, brought direct to England, or refined in bond, and exported and sold in her colonies as cheap or cheaper than they can be produced there: while the slave trade, instead of diminishing, has been in fact carried on to a greater extent than ever. So disastrous has been the result, that her fixed capital vested in tropical possessions, estimated at the value of nearly five hundred millions of dollars, is said to stand on the brink of ruin.

But this is not the worst. While this costly scheme has had such ruinous effects on the tropical productions of Great Britain, it has given a powerful stimulus, followed by a corresponding increase of products, to those countries which have had the good sense to shun her example. There has been vested, it is estimated by them, in the production of tropical products, since 1808, in fixed capital, nearly $4,000,000,000, wholly dependent on slave labor. In the same period, the value of their products has been estimated to have risen from about $72,000,000 annually, to nearly $220,000,000; while the whole of the fixed capital of Great Britain, vested in cultivating tropical products, both in the East and West Indies, is estimated at only about $830,000,000, and the value of the products annually at about $50,000,000. To present a still more striking view of three articles of tropical products (sugar, coffee, and cotton), the British possessions, including the West and East Indies, and Mauritius, produced, in 1842, of sugar, only 3,993,771 pounds: while Cuba, Brazil and the United States, excluding other countries having tropical possessions, produced 9,600,000 pounds; of coffee, the British possessions produced only 27,393,003, while Cuba and

Brazil produced 201,590,125 pounds; and of cotton, the British possessions, including shipments to China, only 137,443,446 pounds, while the United States alone produced 790,479,275 pounds.

The above facts and estimates have all been drawn from a British periodical of high standing and authority,* and are believed to be entitled to credit.

This vast increase of the capital and production on the part of those nations who have continued their former policy toward the negro race, compared with that of Great Britain, indicates a corresponding relative increase of the means of commerce, navigation, manufactures, wealth and power. It is no longer a question of doubt, that the great source of the wealth, prosperity and power, of the more civilized nations of the temperate zone (especially Europe, where the arts have made the greatest advance), depends, in a great degree, on the exchange of their products with those of the tropical regions. So great has been the advance made in the arts, both chemical and mechanical, within the few last generations, that all the old civilized nations can, with but a small part of their labor and capital, supply their respective wants: which tends to limit within narrow bounds the amount of the commerce between them, and forces them all to seek for markets in the tropical regions, and the more newly settled portions of the globe. Those who can best succeed in commanding those markets, have the best prospect of outstripping the others in the career of commerce, navigation, manufactures, wealth and power.

This is seen and felt by British statesmen, and has opened their eyes to the errors which they have committed. The question now with them is, how shall it be counteracted? What has been done cannot be undone. The question is, by what means can Great Britain regain and keep a superiority in tropical cultivation, commerce and influence? Or, shall that be abandoned, and other nations be suffered to acquire the supremacy, even to the extent of supplying British markets, to the destruction of the capital already vested in their production? These are the questions which now profoundly occupy the attention of her statesmen, and have the greatest influence over her councils.

In order to regain her superiority, she not only seeks to revive and increase her own capacity to produce tropical productions, but to diminish and destroy the capacity of those who have so far outstripped her in consequence of her error. In pursuit of the former, she has cast her eyes to her East India possessions—to central and eastern Africa—with the view of establishing colonies there, and even to restore, substantially, the slave trade inself, under the specious name of transporting free laborers from Africa to her West India possessions, in order, if possible, to compete successfully with those who have refused to follow her suicidal policy. But these all afford but uncertain and distant hopes of recovering her lost superiority. Her main reliance is on the other alternative—to cripple or destroy the productions of her successful rivals. There is but one way by which it can be done, and that is by abolishing African slavery throughout this continent; and that she openly avows to be the constant object of her policy and exertions. It matters not how, or from what motive, it may be done: whether it may be by diplomacy, influence or force; by secret or open means; and whether the motive be humane or selfish, without regard to manner, means or motive. The thing itself, should it be accomplished, would put down all rivalry and give her the undisputed supremacy in supplying her own wants and those of the rest of the world; and thereby more than fully retrieve what she has lost by her errors. It would give her the monopoly of tropical productions, which I shall next proceed to show.

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* Blackwood's Magazine, for June, 1844.

What would be the consequence if this object of her unceasing solicitude and exertions should be effected by the abolition of negro slavery throughout this continent, some idea may be formed from the immense diminution of productions, as has been shown, which has followed abolition in her West India possessions. But, as great as that has been, it is nothing compared to what would be the effect if she should succeed in abolishing slavery in the United States, Cuba, Brazil, and throughout this continent. The experiment in her own colonies was made under the most favorable circumstances. It was brought about gradually and peaceably, by the steady and firm operation of the parent country, armed with complete power to prevent or crush at once all insurrectionary movements on the part of the negroes, and able and disposed to maintain to the full the political and social ascendency of the former masters over their former slaves. It is not at all wonderful that the change of the relations of master and slave took place, under such circumstances, without violence and bloodshed, and that order and peace should have been since preserved. Very different would be the result of abolition, should it be effected by her influence and exertions in the possessions of other countries on this continent—and especially in the United States, Cuba and Brazil, the great cultivators of the principal tropical products of America. To form a correct conception of what would be the result with them, we must look, not to Jamaica, but to St. Domingo, for example. The change would be followed by unforgiving hate between the two races, and end in a bloody and deadly struggle between them for the superiority. One or the other would have to be subjugated, extirpated, or expelled; and desolation would overspread their territories, as in St. Domingo, from which it would take centuries to recover. The end would be, that the superiority in cultivating the great tropical staples would be transferred from them to the British tropical possessions.

They are of vast extent, and those beyond the cape of Good Hope possessed of an unlimited amount of labor, standing ready, by the aid of British capital, to supply the deficit which would be occasioned by destroying the tropical productions of the United States, Cuba, Brazil, and other countries cultivated by slave labor on this continent, so soon as the increased price, in consequence, would yield a profit. It is the successful competition of that labor which keeps the prices of the great tropical staples so low, as to prevent their cultivation with profit in the possessions of Great Britain, by what she is pleased to call free labor. If she can destroy its competition, she would have a monopoly in those productions. She has all the means of furnishing an unlimited supply—vast and fertile possessions in both Indies, boundless command of capital and labor, and ample power to suppress disturbances, and preserve order throughout her wide domains.

It is unquestionable, that she regards the abolition of slavery in Texas as a most important step toward this great object of policy, so much the aim of her solicitude and exertions; and the defeat of the annexation of Texas to our Union as indispensable to the abolition of slavery there. She is too sagacious not to see what a fatal blow it would give to slavery in the United States, and how certainly its abolition with us would abolish it over the whole continent, and thereby give her a monopoly in the productions of the great tropical staples, and the command of the commerce, navigation, and manufactures of the world, with an established naval ascendency and political preponderance. To this continent the blow would be calamitous beyond description. It would destroy, in a great measure, the cultivation and production of the great tropical staples, amounting annually in value to nearly $300,000,000—the fund which stimulates and upholds almost every other branch of its industry, commerce, navigation, and manufactures. The whole, by their joint influence, are rapidly spreading population, wealth, improvement and civilization, over the whole continent, and vivifying, by their overflow, the industry of Europe—thereby increasing its population, wealth, and advancement in the arts, in power, and in civilization.

Such must be the result, should Great Britain succeed in accomplishing the constant object of her desire and exertions—the abolition of negro slavery over this continent; and toward the effecting of which, she regards the defeat of the annexation of Texas to our Union so important. Can it be possible that governments so enlightened and sagacious as those of France and the other great continental powers, can be so blinded by the plea of philanthropy as not to see what must inevitably follow, be her motive what it may, should she succeed in her object? It is little short of mockery to talk of philanthropy, with the examples before us of the effects of abolishing negro slavery in her own colonies, in St. Domingo, and the northern States of our Union, where statistical facts, not to be shaken, prove that the freed negro, after the experience of sixty years, is in a far worse condition than in the other States, where he has been left in his former condition. No: the effect of what is called abolition, where the number is few, is not to raise the inferior race to the condition of freemen, but to deprive the negro of the guardian care of his owner, subject to all the depression and oppression belonging to his inferior condition. But, on the other hand, where the number is great, and bears a large proportion to the whole population, it would be still worse. It would be to substitute for the existing relation a deadly strife between the two races, to end in the subjection, expulsion or extirpation, of one or the other: and such would be the case over the greater part of this continent where negro slavery exists. It would not end there; but would in all probability extend, by its example, the war of races all over South America, including Mexico, and extending to the Indian as well as to the African race, and make the whole one scene of blood and devastation.

Dismissing, then, the stale and unfounded plea of philanthropy, can it be that France and the other great continental powers—seeing what must be the result of the policy, for the accomplishment of which England is constantly exerting herself, and that the defeat of the annexation of Texas is so important toward its consummation—are prepared to back or countenance her in her efforts to effect either? What possible motives can they have to favor her cherished policy? Is it not better for them that they should be supplied with tropical products in exchange for their labor, from the United States, Brazil, Cuba, and this continent generally, than to be dependent on one great monopolizing power for their supplies? Is it not better they should receive them at the low prices which competition, cheaper means of production, and nearness of market, would furnish them by the former, than to give the high prices which monopoly, dear labor, and great distance from market would impose? Is it not better that their labor should be exchanged with a new continent, rapidly increasing in population and the capacity of consuming, and which would furnish, in the course of a few generations, a market nearer to them, and of almost unlimited extent, than with one whose population has long since reached its growth?

The above contains those enlarged views of policy, which, it seems to me, an enlightened European statesman ought to take, in making up his opinion on the subject of the annexation of Texas, and the grounds, as it may be inferred, on which England vainly opposes it. They certainly involve considerations of the deepest importance and demanding the greatest attention. Viewed in connection with them, the question of annexation becomes one of the first magnitude, not only to Texas and the United States, but to this continent and Europe. They are presented, that you may use them on all suitable occasions, where you think they may be with effect; in your correspondence, where it can be done with propriety or otherwise. The president relies with confidence on your sagacity, prudence and zeal. Your mission is one of the first magnitude at all times, but especially now; and he feels assured nothing will be left undone on your part to do justice to the country and the government in reference to this great measure.

I have said nothing as to your right of treating with Texas, without consulting Mexico. You so fully understand the grounds on which we rest our right, and are so familiar with all the facts necessary to maintain them, that it was not thought necessary to add anything in reference to it.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

J. C. Calhoun.

William R. King, Esq., &c.

ART. X.—PROGRESS OF THE SOUTHERN AND WESTERN STATES.

1. OHIO—HER WEALTH AND RESOURCES.

The appendix to the report of the Auditor of State, furnishes the following official information:

Acres of land,	23,768,835
Value of lands,	$264,661,957
Value of towns,	71,177,354
Value of personal property, moneys and credits,	92,235,470
Total value of taxable property,	430,839,885
State tax on property,	1,296,547
County, school and township tax,	1,462,721
Road tax,	232,152
School house and other special taxes,	495,436
Total taxes on grand list of 1849,	$3,631,878
Number of horses,	569,830
Value,	$18,162,269
Mumber of mules,	2,945
Value,	$101,233
Number of cattle,	1,058,933
Value,	$10,483,526
Number of sheep,	3,911,835
Value,	$2,072,287
Number of hogs,	1,947,672
Value,	$2,449,820
Total value of domestic animals,	$33,269,135
Number of pleasure carriages,	56,805
Value,	$2,523,400
Number of watches,	62,516
Value,	$854,428
Number of pianos,	2,117
Value,	$275,203
Value of unenumerated articles,	4,412,163
Merchants' stock,	15,406,347
Moneys and credits,	31,149,145
Total amount personal property,	92,235,476

RAILROAD STOCK HELD BY THE STATE.

Mad river and Lake Erie,	$393,050
Mansfield and Sandusky,	23,333
Little Miami,	121,900
Stock dividends on above,	71,300
Total amount held by State,	$520,183

CANAL STOCKS HELD BY THE STATE.

Cincinnati and White Water,	$150,000
Pennsylvania and Ohio,	420,000
Total,	$570,000

The total amount of turnpike, railroad and canal stocks, held by the State, is $3,011,858. Dividends on turnpike, railroad and canal stocks, last year, $38,049.

The total amount of capital bank stock paid in, in all the banks, is $6,488,817 and the amount of tax paid by them to the State, the past year, was $52,862 05.

2. INDIANA—MANUFACTURES OF CANNELTON.

We have once before observed, that our deficiency, in Louisiana, in manufactures, etc., was not the result of deficient capital—and that the capital of the State was going abroad for investment. The following, from the list of stockholders in the Indiana factory, shows this. We are glad to see these investments wherever they are. Perchance, in time, we shall retain and employ more of them at home. Hon. O. J. Morgan, Carroll parish, La.; Hon. Henry Bry, Monroe, La.; Dr. M. J. Sellers, Lake Providence, La.; Hon. Maunsel White and F. Y. Carlisle, New Orleans, La.; Col. Wm. L. Campbell and Hon. F. Griffin, Greenville, Miss.; David Hunt, Rodney, Miss.; John Hutchins and R. M. Gaines, Natchez, Miss.

The officers of the company, who receive no emolument from their offices, own about $100,000 of the stock. The contractor for the machinery has not only invested over $30,000 in and about the mill, but has invested therein his reputation as a manufacturer and mill-builder. He has pledged himself to make this mill the best, that is, the most productive of the kind, in the world, and has stated that Cannelton is the best position, now known, for the establishment and operation of a cotton mill.

Of the stockholders, one is Col. S. H. Long, the distinguished head of the U. S. Topographical Bureau in the West, who is justly regarded as the ablest and most experienced civil engineer in America. Another is Hon. R. Dale Owen, who was once a cotton manufacturer in Scotland, and whose extended observation, in all the important manufacturing districts of the world, fully qualifies him to judge of our advantages. Another is Dr. D. Dale Owen, whose geological information, practical and scientific, is unsurpassed To these high authorities we refer for the truth of our statements, as to the superior advantages of our position.

3. OSWEGO AND BUFFALO.

Oswego is rapidly gaining upon Buffalo, as a point of transhipment of western produce—the tonnage of the former having been, in 1840, 20,047, and of the latter, 131,101; but, in 1849, the former reached 233,583. while the latter was 535,086 tons. The value of property shipped, was, in 1840: Buffalo, $6,200,289; Oswego, $1,677,069. 1849: Buffalo, $20,647,562; Oswego, $8,926,194.

A general knowledge, of the character of the business, may be had from the values of last year:

	Buffalo and Bl'k Rock.	*Oswego.*		*Buffalo and Bl'k Rock.*	*Oswego.*
The forest,..................	$2,699,222	$977,387	Manufactures,.............	$512,318	$290,621
Product of animals,......	5,516,269	1,809,349	Merchandise,...............	126,177	27,054
Vegetable food,............	10,442,407	5,327,367	Other articles,.............	980,473	459,153
Other agricultural products,..................	370,696	35,263	Total,..................	$20,647,562	$8,926,194

4. WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA—PITTSBURG.

The Pittsburg Journal, a few days since, called attention to the growing importance of that city as a bacon market. This fact has not escaped the attention of dealers immediately interested, as all must have observed the steady increase in the shipments to that place from the producing sections. Pittsburg is, and will continue to be, a manufacturing city; she is also, we may say, the center of a large manufacturing and mining district, and upon her market large numbers of operatives and others depend for supplies of the article alluded to, as well as of many others. Consequently, the West must continue to find there a legitimate consumptive demand for a large portion of one of her leading staples—bacon.

This is another proof of the value of the manufacturing business to agriculturists, and the close connection that should exist between the two interests.

The total value of the manufactures of Pittsburg, including exports of coal, exceeds $50,000,000 per annum. This shows a degree of enterprise and industry on the part of her inhabitants not exceeded, probably, by any other city in the union, and a success fully commensurate with their efforts; and the latter is attributable to the right direction of their labors. They have not been content with merely building up manufactories without opening channels of communication with other sections. Had this been the case, their interests might have been, at this time, on a level with many other places we might mention where efforts to open channels of intercommunication received but little support. On the subject of public improvements Pittsburg has ever been wide awake, and always up and doing; and very soon she will be in connection by railroad with all the principal places East and West, and a very great effort is now being made to have the Western road extended to intercept the Indiana roads, without touching our city. This, however, we trust will be prevented by the speedy extension of roads, from this place, now contemplated or already commenced. Pittsburg, however, will secure, by the routes now constructing, a greatly increased demand for her manufactures. New York has long complained of her success in supplying iron and nails to the Northern trade, and even along the line of her own canals. In this department the East will continue to meet with strong competition, and between Pittsburg and Cincinnati, her manufacturers of iron will soon be driven entirely from the field on the northern lakes.

5. PROGRESS AND RESOURCES OF WISCONSIN.

The portion of Wisconsin now occupied embraces about 9,900, say 10,000, square miles. It lies mostly south of the Wisconsin and Fox rivers. Other portions of the State are fertile, but the above is the only part of it that has received much attention from the eastern emigrant.

By the census of 1840, Wisconsin had 30,000 inhabitants. We omit the fraction By the State census of 1847 she had 213,000, making an increase of 183,000, equal to an annual increase of over 26,000 per year. The ratio of increase has been about 33⅓ per cent.

There is no probability that she has continued to increase in this ratio, but as she increased at the rate of 33 per cent up to 1847, there can be no doubt but that for the past three years her annual increase has been equal to what, by the above ratio, she must have increased in 1847, that is 56,185. This would make her present population 381,555.

By the above calculation, the increase of Wisconsin in ten years, has been 353,555. She presents the most remarkable instance of rapid growth of any western State. The following table shows the growth of some of the western States since 1800.

	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.
Ohio,....	45,363	230,760	581,434	937,903	1,379.467
Indiana,	4,875	24,520	147.178	343,031	685,866
Illinois,........		12,282	55,211	157,455	476,183
Michigan,.......		4,762	8,896	31,639	212,167
Missouri, ...		20,845	66,586	140,445	583,702

The increase of the population of this State, great as it is, is much exceeded by the more rapid increase of her products and her commerce. Wisconsin did not begin to export produce to any amount until 1845. Below we give a table of the exports of wheat from the city of Milwaukee for a period of five years commencing at that time. We copy from a report upon the business of that city, made to the Board of Trade, by Alex. Mitchell and E. D. Holton, Esqrs.

1845,..	bushels,	133,310
1846,..	"	292,228
1847,..	"	662,211
1848,..	bushels,	1,076,134
1849,..	"	2,208,517

This increase is at a rate of more than 100 per cent per annum. We are not informed as to the relative amount of exports of Milwaukee compared with other parts of that State, nor of the whole amount of exports. Racine, Southport, and many other places, export a large quantity of wheat; and we know no reason why they have not enjoyed the same rapid relative growth as Milwaukee. The annual growth of Milwaukee, since 1840, has been as follows: 1840, 1,700; 1842, 2,700; 1846, June 1, 9,655; 1847, Dec. 15, 15,071; 1849, August, 18,000.

ARTICLES MANUFACTURED IN MILWAUKEE, 1849.

Woolen goods,..	$40,000
Edge tools,..	30,000
Foundries, various machinery,............	195,000
Carriages and wagons,..........................	115,500
Sash, blinds and doors,..........................	49,700
Leather,..	120,000
Wooden ware and turning,....................	87,750
Lumber,..	20,000
Cabinet ware,..	127,700
Boots and shoes,..	95,250
Tin, sheet iron and copper,....................	114,600
Saddles and harness,..........................	44,000
Soap and candles,..........................	37,000
Burr mill stones,..........................	36,000
Boilers—steam,..........................	20,250
Sail and rigging,..........................	17,500
Plows,..	4,500
Clothing,..	97,000
Saleratus and potashes,..........................	15,000
Lumber planed, &c.,..........................	$24,000
Fanning mills and machines,................	25.700
Paper,..	40,000
Copper and iron smithing,....................	27,550
Earthenware,..	7,500
Brass machinery and turnings,............	10,000
Tobacco and cigars,..........................	15,500
Malt liquors,..	71,000
Bread and crackers,..........................	27,700
Gun and lock smithing,..........................	9,500
Book binding,..	8,000
Coopers' ware,..	8,500
Brick—ten millions,..........................	40,000
Shingles,..	25,500
Miscellaneous—such as jewelers, gilders, weavers, pump makers, dyers, tool manufacturers, &c.,....................	107,000
	$1,714,200

In addition to the above there are five flouring mills, propelled by water power, and one by steam, containing 17 run of stone, each run capable of turning out 80 to 100 barrels of flour per day, and consuming, in all, 7,000 bushels of wheat daily.

IMPORTS.	
Tons merchandise, 16,012,	$3,202.400
Barrels of salt, 35,000,	43,750
Bbls. bulk furniture, 17,500,	140,000
Coal, water, lime and plaster,	18,000
Fruit—dried and green	11,500
Lumber, lath, shingle bolts, shingles and timber,	375,000
Miscellaneous,	38,000
	$3,828,650

EXPORTS.	
Bushels wheat, 1,148,807,	$1,004,642 79
Barrels flour, 201,942,	945.088 50
Do. pork and beef, 5,527,	44.216 00
Tons lead and shot, 810,	53,000 00
Hides, 10,281,	23,132 00
Sundry manufactured articles,	28,390 00
	$2,098,469 36

VESSELS OWNED IN MILWAUKEE.

There are thirty-nine sail vessels owned in, and sailing out of, this port, of which the total tonnage is 5,542—also stock in steamboats and propellers of 3,000 tons, making the total tonnage owned in the port 8,542.

Sixteen sail of vessels are engaged exclusively in the lumber trade, and the remainder in freighting produce and merchandise.

ARRIVALS DURING THE SEASON OF 1848.

Steamboats,	498
Propellers,	248
Barques and brigs,	119
Schooners,	511
	1,176

6. TENNESSEE—PROGRESS OF NASHVILLE.

It is not only gratifying, but absolutely astounding, to witness the growing spirit of improvement in our State; and particularly in Nashville and its vicinity. As may be seen on another page, railroads are in various stages of construction in almost every part of the State, and we doubt not the time is short when railroads will connect, not only the important commercial points in this State, but also throughout the Union. Massachusetts has given the subject of railroads and manufactures a fair test, and while she is the richest State in the Union, her example is felt and will be felt in every section of our growing country.

But a few months have elapsed since by far the most extensive cotton and woolen factory in the country, began operations at Lebanon, but now one on a grand scale is in progress of erection in Nashville. The city, also, will in a short time be lighted from splendid gas works, and we are more than pleased to learn that another company of capitalists is about being formed to erect a second factory, for cotton and wool, on a very extensive scale.

The next move will be a large establishment for the construction of iron machinery—steam engines, railroad cars, and everything that will be needed on our railroads and in our factories. We hope, while the spirit of enterprise is rising, it will reach the point that will determine our citizens to manufacture their own railroad iron. The richest ore is in our hills, and we cannot be independent while we send our cash to England for rails.—*Nashville Naturalist.*

7. ALABAMA—MOBILE.

The necessity of a speedy connection with the metropolis of the State, is daily becoming more apparent to the people of north Alabama. It is a duty which we owe to our own commercial importance, to connect, in some manner, the two sections of this State. North Alabama is suffering an annual drainage of millions of her revenues to other cities for groceries, dry goods, &c., while, with a little expense, a communication could be opened with Mobile, which would turn the current of trade in that direction, and foster the interests of a city of our own.

The situation, wealth and enterprise of Mobile, justly entitle it to the consideration of the people of north Alabama. In point of situation, it is vastly superior to New Orleans, for commercial or manufacturing purposes. Why then, we say, should it be more wealthy and flourishing than that city? The answer is, simply, that we have not bestowed on it the influence and united attention which our extensive resources would warrant. If, instead of sending to New Orleans for groceries—to New York, Philadelphia and Charleston, for dry goods—we would turn our intercourse to Mobile, a city would soon spring up in our own borders, that would soon rival either of those far-famed cities for cheap bargains, durable goods and great commercial advantages.

But out of the large capital of north Alabama that is invested in such a manner, how much goes to Mobile? Comparatively none. Is it right, or is it doing to our State that justice which as individuals we owe? The true answer is, *no.* More than this, Mobile is not the only place benefited by this scheme. It is to the advantage of the *whole* State; as much so as the city of New York is to that State. We feel confident that this proposition will meet with the approbation of all concerned, whether in Mobile or the most northern part of that State. That if the people of Mobile will assist in connecting by railroad the two sections, we will aid in advancing her prosperity by giving the benefit of our cotton, corn, and other articles of produce which we raise in such abundance. This would cause manufacturing establishments of all kinds to spring up over the State, and a city of matchless beauty, unrivalled wealth, and unsurpassed commercial advantages to usurp Mobile, as at present, and give a fresh energy and will to the people, that would soon react to the general welfare and permanent prosperity of our indebted and backward State. We hope for a response from Mobile, that will insure what is here hinted at.

8. TEXAS—ITS RESOURCES, LANDS, RIVERS, PRODUCTS, ETC.

RESOURCES OF TEXAS.

Texas embraces so vast a scope of country possessing so great a variety of soil and climate, and so diversified by hill and dale, high woods and level plains, that every taste can be suited and every description of agricultural labor be successfully prosecuted. The capacity of Texas, as a sugar and cotton growing region, has been briefly noticed in our former articles. We now beg leave to call attention to that particular section of the State lying north of the cotton district proper. This section is neither small nor unfruitful, but has as yet been but little disturbed, except by marauding Indians, who gallop over the prairies in search of the buffalo, occasionally scalping a party of hunters or Santa Fe traders, who are too weak for defense, and sometimes making an excursion into the "settlements" for the purpose of stealing horses and scalps.

A few hardy pioneers, fond of adventure, and impatient of the restraints of civilized society, have sought scenes and events congenial to their rough natures and rude tastes, by penetrating far into the frontiers, where the wolf's howl and the panther's scream are their favorite music, the elk's haunch their delicacies, the buffalo skin their bed, and the savage red-skin their companion. But little has been done toward testing the capabilites of the country for agricultural purposes, above where cotton has been successfully grown, but enough is known to settle its character as a fine grain-growing country. There is a portion of the cotton region, where small grain has been experimented on with the most encouraging success. All of what are denominated the Red River counties, all the country from that to the upper Trinity, extending two hundred miles on that stream above and below the three forks, reaching beyond the Cross Timbers, is a scope of country of surprising fertility, and pronounced by the best judges superior to Missouri as a wheat country. Between the Red river and upper Trinity, there is a larger body of rich land, without any admixture of poor, than can probably be found elsewhere on the continent of America. This description of country extends to most of the Trinity, taking in the Navissotto, Brazos, Colorado, and sources of the Guadaloupe, with occasional interruptions, to our western boundary. Some of the tributaries of the Colorado are represented as surprisingly beautiful and rich; in the valley of the San Saba, grows luxuriantly, wheat, rye, barley and oats, in nature's form, planted by the same hand that planted the tree of life in the first garden, watched over by no eye but that which surveys the universe, and harvested only by the bison and the wild deer. The spontaneous productions of a soil is considered unmistakeable proof of its adaptation to those productions—better intimations could not be given; it is the voice of nature untaught by the husbandman's art, speaking through her own acts, making indigenous that which is peculiarly suited to peculiar localities.

If we regard this indication, then Texas, we must conclude, is pre-eminently adapted to the growth of small grain, since rye and other descriptions of grain grow in rich luxuriance over a territory as large as some of the European kingdoms, or States of the American Union.

TEXAS STOCK AND PRAIRIES.

There is no portion of Texas but where housed cattle can be easier and cheaper raised, than in any portion of the Union or the globe, except on the *pampas* of South America. In many portions of the State, the musketet grass affords the richest and most enduring pasture that the descendants of the bulls of Bashan ever luxuriated on. There the broad meadow stretches beyond the reach of vision, bounded only by the blue horizon, broken occasionally by a lazy stream, or "dry bayou," with here and there a water-hole, and a small skirting of timber, to mark its course. There innumerable herds of cattle, happier and prettier than ever was pastured by Virgil in his pastorals, enliven the otherwise oppressive loneliness of the scene. Other portions of the State are beautifully diversified with towering mountains and laughing valleys, with roaring rapids and smooth gliding streams, presenting to the eye some of the loveliest scenes that nature, in her most fanciful moods, has ever marked out. These, too, are covered with the richest, sweetest herbage, and variegated with innumerable wild flowers of every hue and form. The hilly portion of the country is admirably adapted to sheep raising, as some experiments have fully demonstrated. Sheep raising gives fine return upon invested capital, as has been tested upon the rolling lands of Texas, and we hesitate not to believe that ours will, before a great while, be one of the finest wool-growing States in the Union; our belief is founded on the fact, that sheep are found to be very healthy and multiply very rapidly, and like almost all other descriptions of stock in Texas, can be reared without expense.

Many of the river bottoms in this State, afford the finest winter grazing in the world. Not such as is found in many other southern bottoms, consisting of tall reeds covered with an ever-green foliage, on which cattle may browse, and sustain life until the coming spring, carpets the highlands with its vernal covering, but affording a pasture of a widely different character. On the Trinity, are extensive gamma grass prairies; the Brazos furnishes a species of wild rye, where the bison, the elk and the wild horse, feed and fatten through the entire winter. In Texas, it is never thought necessary to feed any description of stock, but such as are kept in constant service, so bountifully has nature provided for their wants the year round.

There is another description of stock that succeeds admirably. It has for years been tacitly conceded, that it was the peculiar province of the western country to supply the American market with pork, and the metropolis of the West has been a great "swinish" emporium, on which every section of the broad Union might draw *ad lib tum*. But no portion of the entire country, can successfully rival portions of Texas, in this very important item in the provision market, either in the quality of the article or in the cheapness of its production. A few grains of corn thrown to the porkers to keep them gentle, being all that is necessary until the fattening process is commenced, which is generally effected by turning them upon the pea field, after the maize is harvested, or to glean in the sweet potato patch.

TEXAS SUGAR LANDS.

As a sugar growing country, Texas is unequalled by any portion of Louisiana, True, in Louisiana they have rich alluvial soils, and the mighty Mississippi bearing upon its bosom the commerce of half the Union, favoring the occupants of its shores with hourly intercourse with the metropolis of the South. But that portion of Texas where sugar has been successfully raised and which will be distinguished as the sugar region, possesses advantages and facilities for the production of the article, unknown to any portion of Louisiana. The soil of the lower Brazos, San Bernard and old Caney, will bear a favorable comparison with the parishes of Terrebone and Lafourche Interior, whether the test is made the yield per acre, or in the chemist's laboratory. In Texas there is no fear of crevasses and inundations. The planter here is never under any apprehension of having his crop swept off with the flood. Here, too, at no expense, and but little trouble, the planter raises his own pork and the oxen for his teams. The land here is unrivaled in the production of corn by any southern soil—from forty to sixty bushels to the acre being an ordinary yield—enabling the planter, with little trouble, to supply himself with this indispensable article at no cost. Another important consideration for the man who intends to embark in the sugar business—while land in Louisiana costs from thirty to sixty dollars the acre, a better quality of land may be had in Texas for five and eight dollars.

We have not instituted this comparison, for the purpose of disparaging Louisiana. It is well known, its character as a superior agricultural region is established and its advantages appreciated—those of Texas but partially known.

We know not the precise amount of the sugar crop of Texas the present year, nor the amount of land on which it has been raised, nor yet the largest amount produced on a single acre, but the result of the past year's crop has been entirely satisfactory to those engaged in it, and so encouraging as to induce the planters, generally, in the four counties of Brazoria, Fort Bend, Matagorda and Wharton, to engage in its culture, and to draw attention to this section as particularly well suited to the production of this article. We do not pretend to say, that the section above specified is the only portion of the State where the sugar culture will be found profitable; there are lands of great fertility, and admirably situated for this branch of business, on the lower Trinity, on the San Jacinto, the Lavacca and the Guadaloupe, that will soon attract public attention, and be converted into profitable sugar plantations. A vast amount of the richest land in the Union now lies in Texas, untouched by the hand of the husbandman, in lower latitudes than any portion of the United States, save Florida, offered at a mere nominal price. Now is the favored moment for procuring a good sugar plantation in Texas, for the land must inevitably, in a short time, command ten times its present price.

TEXAS NAVIGATION.

[The above extracts are all on the authority of the Matagorda Tribune. The following is from the correspondent of the New Orleans Delta.—Ed.]

It is quite fortunate for the residents on Trinity and Brazos rivers, that they now enjoy the facilities by the pioneer steamers, which have lately commenced a new era here, in the transportation of merchandise to the interior, and their products to a market. Three small steamboats now ply upon each of these rivers advantageously; besides the staunch steamer Ogden, makes weekly trips between Columbia, on the Brazos, to the islet city of the gulf, Galveston. But the unfortunate citizens of the Colorado valley, though favored with the noblest river in the State, are doomed, for years to come, to plod their weary way through the prairie mire, and mud, and boggy bottom, to reach any where. They have long addressed their prayers to Hercules; they are like those of the ancient wagoner, of no avail, until he put his shoulder to the wheel, when the application proved succesful. It is now twelve years since a charter was granted, by the Texan congress, to remove obstructions to navigation in that river—the principal being the raft, a few miles above Matagorda. The steamboat Kate Ward, some years since, ascended the Colorado as high as Austin, the capital of the State; and by a trifling expenditure upon the river above that place, the navigation, it is asserted, may be extended one hundred and fifty or two hundred miles further by steamboats, such as are at present employed on the Trinity and Brazos. The towns upon these streams already feel the cheering impulse of the first energetic effort, and a determined improvement is evinced by all. Success is ever the result of putting the shoulder to the wheel—it must roll onward.

9. RESOURCES AND PROGRESS OF GEORGIA.

We were much delighted with the annexed remarks of Mr. Stephens, of Georgia, made a few weeks since in Congress. They exhibit a state of things in that commonwealth, which must provoke the admiration, as it should the emulation, of every southern State. It is thus we can be respected and feared, and thus only.

"Georgia was the youngest of the old thirteen States that formed the Union. At that time she was the weakest of the fraternal band. Twelve not yet passed since the last remnant of the aborigines were removed from her limits, and since she had complete jurisdiction over her entire domain. Of course the comparison would be with great odds against her if matched against Massachusetts, New York or Virginia, which were wealthy and powerful communities before the infant colony of Georgia was planted in the wilderness. Boston, New York and Richmond, were nearly as old as Georgia now is when Oglethorpe first landed at Savannah. But notwithstanding all this, I will not shrink from the comparison, let it be instituted when and where it may.

"Georgia, too, we tell that gentleman, has her beds of coal and iron; her lime, gypsum and marl; her quarries of granite and marble. She has inexhaustible treasures of minerals, including gold, the most precious of metals. She has a soil and a climate suitable for the growth and culture of almost every product known to husbandry and agriculture. A better country for wheat and corn and all the cereal plants, to say nothing of cotton and tobacco, is not to be found in an equal space on this continent. There, too, grows the orange, the olive, the vine and the fig with forests of oak and pine sufficient to build and mast the navies of the world. She has mountains for grazing, rivers for commerce, and waterfalls for machinery, of all kinds, without number. Nor have these great natural advantages and resources been neglected. Young as she is, she is now the first cotton-growing State in the Union. Her last year's crop will not fall short of six hundred thousand bales, if it does not exceed it. She has, I believe, thirty-six cotton factories in operation, and a great many more hastening to completion—one of them has, or soon will have, ten thousand spindles, with two hundred looms capable of turning out eight thousand yards of cloth per day. Her yarns are already finding their way to the markets of the North and foreign countries; and the day is not distant when she will take the lead in the manufacture, as well as the production, of this great staple. She has also her flour mills and paper mills—her forges, founderies and furnaces, not with their fires extinguished, as the gentleman from Pennsylvania said of some in his State, but in full blast. Her exports, last year, were not less than thirty millions of dollars—equal to, if not greater than those of all New England together. She has six hundred and fifty miles of railroad in operation, at a cost of fifteen millions of dollars, and two hundred more in the process of construction. By her energy and enterprises, she has scaled the mountain barriers and opened the way for the steam car, from the Southern Atlantic ports to the waters of the great valley of the West. But this is not all. She has four chartered universities—nay five, for she has one devoted exclusively to the education of her daughters. She was the first State, I believe, to establish a female college which is now in a flourishing condition, and one of the brightest ornaments of her character. She has four hundred young men pursuing a collegiate course; a greater number, I believe, than any State in the Union in proportion to her white population. Go then and take your statistics, if you wish—you will find not only all these things to be so, but I tell you also what you will not find. You will not find any body in that State begging bread or asking alms. You will find but few paupers. You will not find forty thousand beings, pinched with cold and hunger, demanding the right to labor, as I saw it stated to be the case, not long since, in the city of New York. And when you have got all the information you want, come and institute the comparison, if you wish, with any State you please; make your own selection, I shall not shrink from it, nor will the people of that State shrink from it. Other gentlemen from the South can speak for their own States; I speak only for mine, and in her name and in her behalf, as one of her representatives upon this floor, I accept the gauntlet in advance, and I have no fears of the result of a comparison of her statistics, socially, morally, politically, with any other State of equal population in this confederacy. I know gentlemen of the North are in the habit of laying great stress upon the amount of their population, as if numbers was an index of national prosperity. If this principle were correct, Ireland should be considered one of the most prosperous countries in the world, notwithstanding thousands of her inhabitants die annually for the want of food. The whole idea is wrong. That country has the greatest elements of prosperity, where the same amount of human labor or exertion will procure the greatest amount of human comforts; and that people are the most prosperous, whether few or many, who, possessing these elements, control them, by their energy and industry and economy, for the accumulation of wealth. In these particulars, the people of Georgia are inferior to none in this or any other country. They have abundant reason to be content with their lot—at least not to look to you to better it. Nor have they any disposition to interfere with the affairs of their neighbors. If the people of Massachusetts, New York or Ohio, like their condition better, they are at perfect liberty to do so. Georgia has no desire to interfere with their local institutions, tastes or sentiments, nor will she allow them to interfere with hers. All she desires is to let others alone and to be let alone by others, and to go on in her own way in the progress she has commenced, prosperous and to prosper.

"The six hundred and fifty miles of railroad now in operation, to which I have alluded, were built by Georgia capital. One hundred and thirty-six miles, from Atlanta to Chatanooga, on the Tennessee river, which is one of the greatest monuments of the enterprise of the age, was built by the State. But her public debt is only a little over *eighteen hundred thousand dollars*, while that of the State of New York is over twenty millions, besides the fourteen millions owed by the city alone; and the debt of Pennsylvania is forty millions of dollars. The bonds of the State of Georgia are held mostly by her own people. You do not see them hawked about in northern or foreign markets at a depreciation. But they, as well as the stocks and securities of the private companies, are held mostly by her own citizens, and are commanding premiums at home."

10. FLORIDA—ITS AGRICULTURAL FACILITIES.

We notice, in the newspapers, extended accounts of the growing cotton crop, and they are all quite as unpromising as last year. In Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi, the complaint is cold rains. The plant is very backward and has the "sore shin," and is, moreover, afflicted with lice and grasshoppers. In Texas, Louisiana and Arkansas, a large portion of the cotton lands has been inundated. So on the river lands of Alabama. All the papers conclude, that the crop cannot, under the most favorable circumstances, exceed that of last year. It is too early to arrive at positive conclusions, but it appears probable that the crop will again be short everywhere, except in Florida. Here the prospect is fair. There can be no question that cotton is a much more certain crop here, than in any other portion of the world. Rich, heavy lands, may be very important, but good seasons are more so—and here we have them.

Our crop, here, is endangered only by the insects—for there is no climate in the world, probably, governed by laws more fixed and unvarying than the climate of Florida; and these laws are precisely adapted to the growth and saving of cotton. Occasional light showers from the middle of February to June; heavy rains in the month of June and early in July; light showers to September; dry, fair weather, to January; heavy rains in January and early in February. This is the almost invariable experience in Florida; and when visited by extremes, the porus character of our soil enables the cotton plant better to sustain them. Our land is neither a slough in wet weather nor a sun brick in dry. It will produce as much cotton as can be saved, and the season for saving it is unequaled—and in a business which depends so much upon seasons, it is surprising to us that planters suffer their eyes to be dazzled and judgment blinded, by the rich river bottom lands of Texas, Louisiana and Mississippi, where an entire or partial failure is at least as common as a crop. We hold it to be demonstrable and demonstrated, that cotton is a more certain crop in Florida than in any other State of the Union; and, of course, that cotton growing is more profitable here than any where else.—*Tallahassee Sentinel, June* 4.

11. THE OLD NORTH STATE.

While North Carolina has embarked, to a limited extend, in manufactories, we have been somewhat surprised that she has not gone more fully into it. She possesses as many, or more, natural advantages for it than any other State in the Union. She has water-power sufficient, in her borders, to propel any amount of machinery, and that, too, disposed in such a manner, that it could be applied readily and profitably. She has exhaustless beds of coal and iron, which are as easily worked as those of any section of the world. Then, she has quantities of copper, silver, gold, lime and other minerals, which might be worked to advantage and manufactured into those various forms which would adapt them to the wants and necessities of mankind. She raises large quantities of cotton, and can produce as much wool as she might desire; and yet, with the exception of a few cotton factories, she has paid no attention to this important branch of industry. Her surplus labor, now without employment would be amply sufficient to raise up a manufacturing interest in our borders, which would go far to redeem our State from its dependence upon other States for manufactured articles, and would give life and activity to all branches of industry.

We know the backward state of this branch of industry, in our borders, has been owing, in a great measure, to the want of proper facilities for throwing manufactured as well as agricultural products into the market of the world. But, even if we had none, the erection of various kinds of manufactories could not fail to be of vast benefit to all other interests. While it would employ much of the labor which is now idle, it would create a demand for all agricultural products, thus benefiting the farmer and furnishing to our people the means to embark more largely and extensively into all enterprises of this kind.

Much of the capital of our State has been sent off to other States, because its owners could not find any thing in which they could profitably invest it. Much remains idle and useless in our midst. But we trust that a new spirit of enterprise will be infused into the minds of our people; that, as they are determined to overcome the difficulties which lie in their way to a free and rapid communication with the markets of the world, they will employ those means they have to make North Carolina one of the first States in the Union in wealth and in enterprise.

We have a good soil, a pleasant and varied climate—and why may not our citizens expend their means and put forth their energies to improve the advantages we have, and to develop the latent resources with which we have been so richly blessed?

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1. PRODUCTION OF RICE IN SOUTHERN STATES.

In our first volume was published the invaluable memoir upon the rice plant, prepared by Col. Allston, of South Carolina, which is one of the most complete treatises extant upon any branch of agricultural industry. We followed, in our seventh volume, with a paper upon the culture of rice in India, and, in the eighth, with one upon the culture in Louisiana. To these we refer Sumter, the correspondent of the "Alabama Planter," in extracting from his remarks.

Col. Ward, of South Carolina, says, that, in 1845, he planted a field of sixteen acres in rice of two different kinds, known as long and small grain. The long grain produced rough rice, 376 bushels, making clean rice 10,754 lbs. worth $404 67, and a residuum of 519 32, or 16 bushels and 7 quarts of small or broken rice, and 31 bushels of flour. There was then, per acre of merchantable rice, 1,344¼ lbs., worth $50 58 per acre. The small grain produced 348 bushels rough rice, making 10,767 lbs., worth $404 56. There was, then, per acre, 1,3 .5⅛ lbs. of merchantable rice, worth $50 87, and a residuum of 16 bushels and 23 quarts of broken rice and 33 bushels of flour.

In 1846, Dr. E. T. Hewitt planted a field of 25 acres in alternate beds, as in the foregoing case. His results were, long grain, 392 bushels rough rice, making 12,099 lbs. clean rice, or 968 lbs. nearly, per acre, worth $43 81 to the acre, and a residuum of 4¾ bushels of small rice and 40½ bushels of flour. The small grain produced 381 bushels, making 11,065 lbs. clean rice, being 885.2 lbs. to the acre, and worth $39 51⅔ to the acre, with a residuum of 5¼ bushels of small rice and 37 bushels of flour. It is scarcely necessary to remark, that these small residuary portions of the unmerchantable product are used on the plantations, either as food for the hands or the stock upon it.

It is also of value to note the rate, per pound, at which the rice appears to have been sold:

	Pounds.	*Value.*	*Rate per pound.*
First parcel, long grain,	10,754	$404 67	3¾ cts. nearly.
" " small "	10,767	404 56	3¾ "
Second parcel, long grain,	12,099	547 62	4.44 cts.
" " small "	11,065	493 96	4.46 "

This will give an average price of 4.09 cents, nearly, for the varieties, as stated, per pound, in the two years 1845 and 1846, and an average money product to the acre of $45 14 nearly, an average product in bushels of rough rice of 36½ nearly, and an average product of merchantable rice of 1,090 lbs.

The highest price per pound is 4.46 cents, the lowest 3¾ cents; the largest product per acre of clean rice is 1,342⅞ lbs., the smallest is 885.2 lbs.—making the product of the first 50 per cent. larger than that of the second, per acre of clean rice; and, therefore, it is reasonable to suppose, that the latter was no more than a common crop, even if the former were an extraordinary one, and hence, making it a safe basis to make calculations upon.

Are there not, among your readers, some Carolinians and Georgians, who would be able to enlighten the public on the mode of culture, cost of it, and the probable results? I am persuaded that the southern part of the United States, by a proper direction of labor and capital, could monopolize the supply of rice as it now does of cotton, and thus add another strong item to the strong influences she now possesses on the commerce and destiny of the world, and render her institutions more safe and her property more profitable. Could the vast quantities of rich marsh lands that exist on our Atlantic and Gulf coasts, be converted into rice fields, a very extensive opening would be made for an additional application of slave labor, and consequent security and advantage to our section of the country. But the cultivation of the low-land rice need not be confined to the coasts and marshes of the Atlantic, the Gulf and the Mississippi. Throughout the South there are tens of thousands of acres susceptible of being flooded by springs and perennial streams, far in the interior and capable of producing the most heavy crops of rice at the smallest cost, either for land preparation or culture, and in portions of the country the most healthful and inviting.

The mode of cultivating rice in China, noticed in the Patent Office Report for 1847, page 173, is peculiarly applicable to the interior of a great part of the southern country. The large flats along small streams, capable of being dammed and thrown over large tracts of lands, and the springs that so generally issue from the hills that border these flats that may so easily be turned upon them, render flooding, in many places, a work of the smallest possible cost and of the utmost safety and security.

2. GOVERNOR AIKEN'S EXTENSIVE RICE ESTATE.

While upon the subject of rice, we cannot refrain from introducing, from the American Agriculturist, the sketch of a visit, by Solon Robinson, Esq., to Jehossee island, the magnificent rice estate of Ex-Governor Aiken, of South Carolina. We have ourselves frequently passed this plantation, between Savannah and Charleston, and know that it is one of the most perfect in the world.

This island contains about 3,300 acres, no part of which is over ten or fifteen feet above tide, and not more than 200 to 300 acres but what was subject to overflow, until dyked out by an amount of labor almost inconceivable to be performed by individual enterprise, when we also take into account the many miles of navigable canals and smaller ditches There are 1,500 acres of rice lands, divided into convenient compartments for flooding, by substantial banks, and all laid off in beds, between ditches three feet deep and only 35 feet apart. Part of the land was tide-water marsh, and part of it timber swamp. Besides this, Gov. Aiken cultivates 500 acres in corn, oats and potatoes; the balance is gardens, yards, lawns, and in woods, pasture and unreclaimed swamp. Wood is becoming scarce on the island—so much so that he drives the steam engine, to thresh the crop, by burning straw, which answers a good purpose, but is of doubtful economy; though he intends carefully to save and apply the ashes, which are very abundant, and note the difference, in value, between that application and the manure made from the decomposed straw. It is generally calculated that two-thirds of the straw will be sufficient fuel to thresh the crop, but Gov. Aiken has not found it so. He says there is no more danger of fire in the use of straw than in any other fuel. The flue is carried off fifty or sixty feet along the ground, and there rises in a tall stack that *never emits any sparks*. Sugar planters, and all farmers who use steam, may do well to notice this. I recollect Mr. Burgwyn carries his off from his barn in the same way, with the same effect.

Governor Aikin, however, has one improvement that I recollect mentioning to

Mr. B. he would require; that is, a "man hole" into this flue, to enable him to clean out the great accumulation of cinders at the bottom of the stack. In Gov. Aiken's there are two, which are closed by iron covers.

The threshing apparatus is a most convenient one. The sheaves are brought from the stacks in the great smooth yard to a large shed where all the sheltered grain can be saved, and are there opened and laid on carriers, similar to cane carriers, which carries them up to these machines in the second story, where the grain is separated from the straw, and falls down into winnowing machines, from whence it is removed by hand (it might be carried by machinery) to another part of the building, over a canal, and is let down into boats to carry it about half a mile to the hulling mill, which is exactly like Col. Carson's, and driven by tide. It is carried from the boats to the mill by hand, or rather head, where a little head work of another kind would take it up out of the boat by elevators.

The straw is consumed almost as fast as threshed. And here the saving of labor in getting wood, as well as the saving of labor in stacking the straw and hauling manure, must be taken into account, as an offset to the loss of manure in burning the straw.

The rice, for seed, is always threshed by hand, as experience has taught that the vitality of a considerable portion is injured in the threshing machines. *It is just so with wheat.* [An experienced farmer thinks about one grain in 500 is injured by threshing with machines, and, as about six per cent. by the last process, there is still a great pecuniary advantage in favor of threshing with a machine.—EDS.]

The quantity of seed to the acre is two to three bushels, planted in drills 15 inches apart, opened by trenching plows; and, singular as it may sound to some other rice planters, Governor Aiken plows all of the land that will bear a mule or horse, of which he works about forty and twenty oxen.

Corn is generally planted in hills, upon the upland part of the island, which is sandy, four by five feet, two stalks in a place, and yields an average of 15 bushels per acre. Corn, upon the low or rice land, does not yield well, though it makes very large stalks. With sweet potatoes, on the contrary, the low land produces nearly double, and of better quality, averaging 200 bushels to the acre, and frequently 400 bushels. The average yield of rice is 45 bushels to the acre, and upon one eighty-acre lot the average yield is 64 bushels. The crop upon that lot, last year, was 5,100 bushels, weighing 234,600 lbs.; that is, 46 lbs. to the bushel. This made 229 barrels of whole rice, two barrels of middling, and two and a half barrels of small rice, which, at 600 lbs each (probably about 20 lbs. below the average), would make 140,100 lbs. This, at three cents, will give the very snug sum of $4,203 for the crop of 80 acres.

The average annual sales of the place do not vary materially from $25,000, and the average annual expenses not far from $10,000, of which sum $2,000 is paid the overseer, who is the only white man upon the place, besides the owner, who is always absent during the sickly months of summer. All the engineers, millers, smiths, carpenters and sailors, are black. A vessel, belonging to the island, goes twice a week to Charleston and carries a cargo of one hundred casks. The last crop was 1,500 casks; the year before, 1,800, and all provisions and grain required, made upon the place. Last year, there was not more than half a supply of provisions.

Like nearly all the lower-country plantations, the diet of the people is principally vegetable. Those who work "task work" receive, as rations, half a bushel of sweet potatoes a week, or six quarts of corn meal or rice, with beef or pork, or mutton occasionally, say two or three meals a week. As all the tasks are very light, affording them nearly one-fourth of the time to raise a crop for themselves, they always have an abundance, and sell a good deal for cash. They also raise pigs and poultry, though seldom for their own eating. They catch a great many fish, oysters, crabs, &c.

The carpenters, millers, &c., who do not have an opportunity of raising a crop for themselves, draw large rations, I think a bushel of corn a week, which gives them a surplus for sale. The children and non-workers are fed on corn bread, hominy, molasses, rice, potatoes, soup, &c.

The number of negroes upon the place is just about 700, occupying 84 double frame houses, each containing two tenements of three rooms to a family, besides the cockloft. Each tenement has its separate door and window, and a good brick fireplace, and nearly all have a garden paled in. There are two common hospitals and a "lying-in hospital," and a very neat, commodious church, which is well filled, every Sabbath, with an orderly, pious congregation, and service performed by a respectable methodist clergyman, who also performs the baptismal, communion, marriage and burial rites.

There is a small stock of cattle, hogs and sheep, kept upon the place for meat, which are only allowed to come upon the fields in winter, under charge of keepers. The buildings are all of wood, but generally plain, substantial and good. There is a pretty good supply of tools, carts, boats, &c., and the land is estimated to be worth $1 0 an acre, for the rice land, which would be $150,000

The 500 acres upland, $25 per acre,	12,500
The negroes, at $300 each,	21 ,000
Stock, tools and other property, say	7,500
	$380,000

which will show rather a low rate of interest, made from sales of crops, notwithstanding the amount of sales look so large.

Now, the owner of all this property lives in a very humble cottage, embowered in dense shrubbery and making no show, and is, in fact, as a dwelling for a gentleman of wealth, far inferior, in point of elegance and convenience, to any negro house upon the place, for the use and comfort of that class of people.

He and his family are as plain and unostentatious, in their manners, as the house they live in; but they possess, in a most eminent degree, that true politeness and hospitality that will win upon your heart and make you feel at home in their humble cot, in such a manner that you will enjoy a visit there better than in a palace.

Nearly all the land has been reclaimed, and the buildings, except the house, erected new, within the twenty years that Governor Aiken has owned the island. I fully believe that he is more concerned to make his people comfortable and happy, than he is to make money.

3. CHEAP FARMING LANDS IN VIRGINIA.

Taking into account the fertility and all the conveniences of navigable waters, and the products of the same, which add to the comforts and luxuries of life, and also the mildness of climate, I believe the tide-water region of Virginia offers the cheapest lands, according to their intrinsic value, of any part of the United States. Lands, that, under a moderate state of improvement and cheap system of fertilizing by lime, marl, clover or peas, or by an application of 200 lbs. of guano to the acre, can be made to average at least twelve bushels of wheat, or thirty bushels of corn to the acre; which can be bought at from $10 to $30 an acre, with good buildings and fences, within two days' sail of New York, I hold to be very cheap. Thousands of acres of timber land, or "old field" land, in the same region, can be bought for one to five dollars an acre. I was lately offered a very productive, well-improved farm upon the "Glouster Low Grounds," lying upon the navigable waters of the Severn, for $25 per acre. This farm is all underlaid with rich marl only a few feet from the surface.

The "flat lands" of the Rappahannock are worth from $10 to $20 an acre. The "hill lands" or "forest," are worth about half that sum, according to the state of improvement or locality.

As to the quality of the people, it may be gathered in a great degree from the fact, that neither doctor, lawyer, judge, justice, sheriff, clerk nor constable, can live by his profession. In the county of Caroline, with 20,000 inhabitants, for instance, I was told that a suit in court was almost unknown. The sheriff has not had a writ in his hands this year, nor has a suit, either civil or criminal, been instituted in the justice's court.

I do not think that emigrants from any of the northern States have any more to apprehend on account of health, than they would in the West. The condition of agricultural improvement may be imagined, when I tell my readers that nine-tenths of the plows used are the old "Freeborn pattern," little one-horse plows, and that land is planted with corn one year, and sowed with wheat and weeds next, and then corn again, without manure, and yet people live, and the land does not become absolutely barren under such an exhausting system. No wonder that land is cheap—for the owners don't know its value.

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4. THE CAROLINA PALMETTO.

Speaking of the Washington monument, Mr. Frost, of the New Orleans Crescent, suggests the propriety of each of the States furnishing a part of the wood work as well as the stone. In that event, he adds, and we quote, for the sake of the allusion to the beautiful palmetto, the pride of our early home, rendered sacred by being incorporated in her banner and on her seal, and despite the too common but unmerited thrust at the politics of the State which the extract contains:

" Texas could send a trunk of the pecan: Louisiana the cypress, which is the tree of the State: Mississippi the magnolia; Florida the live oak; Georgia and North Carolina the yellow pine; South Carolina the palmetto, though we fear the structure of this beautiful tree would be as impracticable as her politics. This is the finest specimen of the palm family indigenous to the United States. It is the chamærops palmetto of the botanists. In the Sketch of the Botany of South Carolina, by the lamented Elliott, is the following interesting description of this tree:

"*Stem* sometimes attaining a height of 40—50 feet, 12—15 inches in diameter. The *frond* 5 or 6 feet in length, growing at the very summit of the tree. *Flowers* in naked panicles. *Drupe* bluish black.

"This palm possesses a great and, to this country, an increasing value. It is the only tree produced in our forests which is not attacked by the *teredo navalis* or ship-worm; and as it is incorruptible in salt water, its value for submarine construction is almost incalculable.

"Its leaves can be employed in the manufacture of hats, baskets, mats, and many other purposes of domestic economy; the 'cabbage,' composed of the unexpanded embryo leaves, may be classed among the most delicious vegetables produced on our tables. It is, however, a wasteful luxury, as the tree always perishes when deprived of this part of its foilage.

"Grows along the sea coast of Carolina and Georgia, confined to the neighborhood of salt-water; preferring damp, rich soils. Flowers June—July."

And now that we are on the palms, we will give a beautiful description from Linnæus:

"Princes of the vegetable kingdom, of Indian origin, distinguished by their sheathed and many spiked flowers, their flowing habit, their lofty stature, the simple elegance of their unbranched, long-enduring stem, the leafy evergreen garlands with which they are crowned, and their princely treasures of rich fruit."

The Sylva of North America, by Michaux, is a magnificent work. This enthusiastic naturalist made an extensive tour over a large portion of the continent, though he did not reach the Rocky Mountains. Mr. Nuttal, Professor of Natural History in Harvard University, however, traversed the continent with a party of trappers and hunters. On his return he added, or was to add, a volume to the work. Unfortunately for the cause of natural science, this gentleman inherited a title and fortune in England. Unlike the Baron Von Humboldt, he appears to have given up the more laborious researches—in fact, we have lost sight of him. Bartram, more than a hundred years ago, explored the Southern States and Florida.

5. SUGAR LANDS OF FLORIDA.

In passing the Withlacoochee, in Benton county, we must not fail to notice the large sulphur and iron springs not over a mile from the large hammock we have left (Ten-Mile Creek hammock), and not more than two from the small one on the South side of the river. From these springs to the Crystal river, a distance of ten miles, there are but two small hammocks, and they are not of sufficient size to attract much attention from the sugar planter.

On Crystal river (the most beautiful probably in Florida) there is land enough, it is said, for about four plantations. The land is similar in character, although thought not to be of the first quality, with that of the coast lands before described.

The river is formed by a lake of springs—is wide and deep, and is but eight miles long. A high rolling pine country makes down to its head, and in view of its crystal springs, its lakes and islands, its evergreen woods, its Indian and shell mounds, its high shell islands at its mouth, its harbor and bay, its fish, oysters and turtle, it certainly is a most beautiful and desirable place. There are no planters upon this river.

Between the Crystal and Homossassa rivers, a distance of six miles, it is a prairie, with the exception of one or two hammocks, one of which is owned by the State. It is a question if this prairie would not be a fine sugar land, and the most of it easily brought under cultivation.

The Homossassa is another spring river, about ten miles long, wide enough for steamboats, with rocky islands, shell islands, bayous, cross rivers and salt rivers enough for a person residing upon it to lose his way even in the day time. It is beautiful nevertheless, and a person would hardly be satisfied after a month's exploration. It abounds in fish, and near it there are fine oysters. On its northern bank there is land enough probably for three or four sugar plantations, and, on the South side the hammock, is about three miles deep and extends to the Chisewitska river, six miles. Some of these lands are rocky, and this is made an objection to them; but although it may be more difficult to cultivate, yet the crop of corn, potatoes, pumpkins and turnips, and the patches of cane, show that the rocks do not interfere with their growth.

There are three plantations upon this river, but no sugar crop has yet been made. About sixty acres of cane have been planted this year, but it is intended mostly for seed, I presume.

It should be observed that vessels can find safe anchorage off the mouths of these rivers, and there will be but little difficulty in getting the produce to market if once made.

The Chisewitska is another spring river, and is about ten miles long. Most of the lands upon this river, it is thought, will require draining. The hammock upon it extends South, so far as has been surveyed, two miles.

The next twelve miles South to the Weekaiwachee, or Spring C. R., are not much known, as no settlements were made between the two, and there has been no survey. Immediately east of this is the Annuttiliga hammock, containing nearly forty square miles of hammock. This might be termed in Florida "up country," but I notice it, as no part of this hammock is over sixteen miles from barge navigation on the rivers Chisewitska and Weekaiwachee, and neither river over ten miles long.

This hammock is well dotted around with permit claims, but the majority of those who have settled had not the means to plant extensively, and located there on account of the prospective value of the land. The remainder, with the exception of some few tracts purchased, has been located by the State.

Many remark that the Annuttiliga and Chocochata country is as fine and as desirable as any in the State, and if we think rich lands, a high rolling country and beautiful places for residences a desideratum, it should certainly claim as much attention as any part with which I am acquainted.

Chocochata hammock will not probably claim much attention from sugar planters, although the average distance from the Weekaiwachee river would not be upward of fifteen miles.

On the Weekaiwachee river there are good lands, but they are mostly unsurveyed. This is another spring river, rising in the high rolling country, about two miles long, and emptying into the Gulf. South of Weekaiwachee there are no rich lands north of Tampa Bay, a distance of fifty miles, with the exception of one or two small hammocks; but it is a very desirable country for raising stock. My estimate of the lands adapted to sugar culture, in Benton county, is seventy-five square miles unoccupied. This, with the amount in Levy county, will make two hundred square miles.

I have not estimated in this the small detached hammocks, nor any pine lands that may be used profitably for this crop. I have mentioned sugar, as I believe it will be the principal product of this section of the country, most of which is further South than Lake George, and a portion below Lake Monroe. These lands are as well adapted to cotton, corn and tobacco, as any other in the South.

The State owns most of these lands. What is the best course to pursue to have them settled and to enhance their value? I propose to consider this in a future communication. AN ACTUAL SETTLER.

6. PRODUCTION OF GRAPES AND WINES IN THE SOUTH AND WEST.

We have, in previous volumes, published a great many articles upon this subject, from the pen of Dr. Weller, of N. Carolina, Mr. Noyes, of Mississippi, and others. The subject has too much interest at the South, easily to be exhausted, and inquiries, relating to it, are frequently made of us.

A few months ago, Dr. Weller was kind enough to forward us an assortment consisting of several dozen bottles of his wines, which we have either consumed or presented to friends for their opinion and judgment. With scarcely any exception, the verdict has been the highest approval, in which we heartily concur. Some of the specimens were what the Doctor calls "leaf wine," "scuppernong hock," "scuppernong Madeira," "scuppernong champagne," etc. We preferred the "hock." The fault of *over*-sweetness, is one that is common to all American wines. We have preserved a few bottles, and may hereafter state how they are affected by *time*.

It is known, to many of our readers, that Cincinnati and its vicinity have acquired great fame for the production of the finer wines; and the following, by Mr. Buchanan, a leading merchant of that city, will be read every where with interest:

SELECTING AND PREPARING THE GROUND.—A hill side, with a southern aspect, is preferred. If the declivity is gentle, it can be drained by sodded, concave avenues; but if too steep for that, it must be benched or terraced, which is more expensive.

In the autumn and winter, dig or trench the ground with a spade all over, two feet deep, turning the surface under. The ground will be mellowed by the frosts of winter.

PLANTING.—Lay off the ground in rows, three by six feet; put down a stick, twelve or fifteen inches long, where each vine is to grow.

The avenues shall be ten feet wide, dividing the vineyard into squares of one hundred and twenty feet. Plant, at each stick, two cuttings, separated five or eight inches at the bottom of the hole, but joined at the top—throw a spadeful of rich vegetable mold into each hole, and let the top eye of the cutting be even with the surface of the ground, and if the matter is dry, cover with half an inch of light earth.

The cuttings should be prepared for planting, by burying them in the earth immediately after pruned from the vines, in the spring; and, by the latter end of March or early in April, which is the right time for planting, the buds will be swelled so as to make them strike root with great certainty. Cut off close to the joint at the lower end, and about an inch in all above the upper.

PRUNING.—The first year after planting, cut the vines down to a single eye (some leave two ; the second, leave two or three; and, the third, three or four. After the first year, a stake, six and a half or seven feet long, must be driven firmly down by each plant, to which the vines must be kept neatly tied, with willow or straw, as they grow. Late in February or early in March, is the right time for spring pruning in this climate.

Summer pruning consists in breaking off the lateral sprouts and shoots, so as to leave two strong and thrifty canes or vines—one of which is to bear fruit the ensuing season, and the other to be cut down in spring pruning, to a spur, to produce new shoots. These may be let to run to the top of the stake, and trained from one to the other, until the wood is matured, say in August or September, when the green ends may be broken off. One of these vines is selected next spring for bearing fruit, and cut down to four or six joints, and bent over and fastened to a stake, in the form of a bow. The other is cut away, as well as the fruit-bearing wood of the last year, leaving spurs to throw out new wood for the next, and thus keeping the vine down to within one and a half or two feet of the ground. Nip off the ends of the fruit-bearing branches two or three joints beyond the bunches of grapes, but do not take off any leaves.

If both the cuttings grow, take one up or cut it off under ground, as but one vine should be left to each stake.

CULTURE.—The vineyard must be kept perfectly clean from weeds and grass, and hoed two or three times during the season. Keep the grass, in the avenues around, down close. About every third year put in manure, by a trench the width of a spade, and three or four inches deep, just above and near each row; fill in with two or three inches of manure and cover up with earth.

WINE MAKING.—Gather the grapes when very ripe; pick off the unsound and unripe berries. The bunches are then mashed in a mashing tub, or pressed through a small mill, breaking the skin but not the seed, and thrown into the press, and the screw applied until the skins are pressed dry.

FERMENTATION.—This process is very simple. The juice is put into clean casks, in a cool cellar, and the casks filled within about four or five inches of the bung, and the bung put on loosely. The gas escapes, but the wine does not run over. In from two to four weeks, generally, the fermentation ceases, and the wine clears; then fill up the casks and tighten the bungs. In February or March, rack off into clear casks. In the spring, a moderate fermentation will again take place; after that, the wine fines itself, and is ready for bottling or barreling. Use no brandy or sugar, if the grapes are sound and well ripened. Keep bunged up or corked tight, and in a cool cellar, and the wine will improve, by age, for many years. R. BUCHANAN.

Mr. Charles Cist.

STATISTICS.

Cost of my vineyard, of six acres—fourteen thousand four hundred vines:

Trenching, two feet deep, $65 per acre,	$390
Sodding avenues,	60
Cost of 30,000 cuttings, @ $2 50 per thousand,	75
Planting,	70
Fourteen thousand five hundred locust stakes, @ $3 per hundred,	435
Setting 14,500 stakes,	55
Total,	$1,085

Cost of attending the first year—vine dresser $216, and a hand for one month,	231
Second year—vine dresser $216, and a hand for two months, @ $15 per month,	246
Cuttings, after first year, to replace failures, say,	20
Hauling, carting, &c.,	68
Contingencies, &c.,	150
Average cost, say $300 per acre,	$1,800

The third year the vines will produce grapes enough to pay the expenses of that year—generally more.

For the fourth year, and a series of eight or ten years in succession, the experience of the past would indicate the following calculation to be something like a fair one:

Say six acres average 250 gallons, at rates heretofore $1 per gallon,		1,500
Deduct cost of wine dresser, per annum,	$240	
Assistance, hoeing, &c.,	60	
Gathering grapes and pressing,	150=	450
Net profit per annum,		$1,050

To attain this, the vineyard must be favorably situated and well attended, by a competent vine dresser, and free from the disastrous visitation of the rot.

VINE CULTURE IN THIS VICINITY.—It is estimated that over three hundred acres are now planted with the vine, within a circuit twelve miles round Cincinnati; nearly two-thirds of which were in bearing last year, producing, notwithstanding the rot, so injurious to many, about 50,000 or 60,000 gallons of wine.

The catawba is our *great* wine grape, and principally cultivated. The Isabella is not preferable for wine, and is only used for table use.

Mr. Longworth, with unwearied zeal and liberality, is still experimenting with new varieties, and may yet find a rival for the catawba.

N. B. Some vineyards, in good seasons, have produced at the rate of 600 to 800 gallons to the acre; but this is rare. The usual yield is 300 to 400 gallons, where there is but little rot. A bushel of grapes, if well ripened, will produce three and a half to four gallons of wine.

By proper economy, a man may have a vineyard of several acres, in a few years, without feeling the expense to be burthensome. Commence by trenching one acre in the winter, and planting it out in the spring: next year another acre, and so on for five or six years. After the first year, he will have his own cuttings, from the first acre, and also grapes enough to pay for the cost of planting the succeeding additions to his vineyard.

If he has suitable timber on his own land, the stakes can be got out in the winter with but little outlay in money. By this course, the cost of a vineyard of six acres, would not be half as much as mine.

Some prefer planting in rows, four by five—others, four and a half by four and a half; and on level land, three and a half by six, or even seven feet.

I have merely given, in the foregoing remarks, the course pursued by myself and some of my neighbors, without pretending that it is preferable to others.

7. FENCING.

In many parts of the South, from the scarcity of timber, fences become an article of considerable annoyance and expense; which is especially the case on the prairie lands of Louisiana, and perhaps Texas. Hedges and ditches are substituted for them, and we have, on several occasions, recommended the "Cherokee Rose." Our attention has latterly been called to an article in the "Western Review," advocating *wire fencing*. This is a novel proposition and may not be unworthy of some consideration. The author, Mr. Sibley, makes his estimates for the neighborhood of St. Louis; but whether they would be correct in other quarters, or answer on a large as well as small scale, we are unable to say.

For the illustration take one hundred and fifty pannels of twelve feet each—the height to be four feet and six inches; the posts for the plank six feet apart; for the wires twelve feet; both to be strong and sufficient barriers against cattle, horses, sheep, hogs *and pigs;* and both to be made of the very best materials to be obtained, of plank, posts and wire.

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY PANNELS OR EIGHTEEN HUNDRED FEET PLANK FENCE.

301 cedar posts, @ 25 cents,	$75,25	Setting posts, say 3 cts. each,	$9,03	
150 ground poles or rails, @ 4 cts.,	6.00	Placing and securing ground poles, say	3,00	
1 string 12 inch plank, bottom,	27,00	Carpenter for fitting and putting up 150 pannels, at say 15 cts. per pannel,	22,50	— $34,53
4 string 6 inch plank, side, @ $13,50,	54,00			
1 string 6 inch plank, cap,	13.50			
301 battens, one to each post, @ 4 cts.,	12,04			
100 lbs. nails, 60 to the pound,	5,00			
Cost of the materials on the ground,	$192,79	The whole probable cost,		$227,32
		or say *one dollar and fifty cents* per pannel.		

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY PANNELS OR EIGHTEEN HUNDRED FEET WIRE FENCE.

151 cedar posts, @ 25 cents,	$37,75	Setting the posts and braces, say	4,50
150 ground poles, @ 4 "	6,00	Placing and securing the ground poles,	3,00
8 strands, No. 9 iron wire, @ $9,	72,00	Boring the posts, seven holes, say	2,00
151 staples, to secure top strand, @ ½ ct. each,	75	Fitting and stretching the wires, say	7,00
Bracing for 6 or 8 of the posts, say	1,00	Plugging the holes in the posts, say	1,00
Cost of the materials on the ground,	$117,50	The whole probable cost,	$135,000
		or *ninety* cents per pannel.	

The above cannot be far from correct. It may be safely assumed, that the rough plank fence will cost, at least, fifty cents per pannel more than the wire.

The wires *must* be well coated with some substance to prevent rust. Three coats of white lead paint will be sufficient; which will cost but little, and is easily and quickly applied. The plank estimated in the foregoing statement, is supposed to be in the rough state, as taken from the land, and cannot be painted; it may be white washed however, which will cost at least as much as the painting of the wires.

To put the plank on a fair equality with the wire, it should be neatly planed and thoroughly painted—which would add at least fifty cents to the cost of each pannel. No. 9 wire is probably the best size for this use; No. 10 may answer, and will cost a trifle less by measure, and only a trifle—there is no doubt about No. 9. The wires must be passed *through* the posts (except the top one), the holes bored with an inch auger, to admit a small paint brush. Stretch the wires *very tight;* this is effected with ease and expedition, by means of a simple contrivance (of my own), with which a common bench screw of wood, is employed with great power and convenience.

Good cedar posts, only twelve feet apart, planted firmly, the wires well stretched and painted, with a good pole at the bottom to prevent pigs from rooting under; will present an impassable barrier to any animal that ought not to be outlawed—not at all liable to be injured by wind or rain storms—not easily impaired—occupying but little space—not obstructing the view—neat and pretty in appearance; and will be much more likely to endure fifty or sixty years, with a *little* care, than any wooden fence fifteen or twenty years, with *much* care, patching, propping, &c.

To put up the wire fence, requires no machine; a handy man and smart boy will complete *one hundred and fifty pannels*, perfectly, in but little over half the [illegible] that it would employ two carpenters to finish the same length of plank [illegible] Supposing the materials are to be hauled overland ten miles, or any distance, not less than *twenty two thousand pounds* of wood will be required for [illegible] including the posts—for the wire and posts, not over *four thou*- [illegible]

The foregoing estimates are for *outside* fencing. Many *inside* inclosures, where only the larger animals, horses and cattle, are to be restrained, may be made secure with three or four strands of wire, on posts three and a half or four feet in height—in some instances, even two strands might be sufficient.

8. COTTON;

ITS PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION AND PROSPECT OF PRICES CONSIDERED, AND THE REASONS SUBMITTED WHY IT WILL LARGELY ADVANCE THIS SEASON AND MAINTAIN A HIGH ONE THE NEXT, BY GEO. G. HENRY, MOBILE.

Important and interesting to so many as this staple is, it is one respecting which but little is placed before the world, and hence in the midst of its market, and the points of its production, we find very many having remarkably vague ideas in relation to it. Dry as is the subject, permit me to lay before your readers some observations and particulars which may strike many, even engaged in both buying and selling it, as deserving consideration, and which it would be well for all concerned to retain in their memory.

Production, consumption and prices, are the three heads which the subject naturally divides itself under, and we will first glance at its

PRODUCTION.

Respecting the extent of cotton crops, there is usually diversity of *expression;* but among those who have an opportunity of forming an opinion from information found repeatedly correct, and from extensive personal observation combined, there is never a very material difference. The estimates of the crop of 1849, by those who thus systematically analyze their information and observation, who carefully bear in mind that obtained from sources which had frequently proved not far from the mark, and eschewed that which they had found frequently incorrect, I say, the estimates of this class of persons have varied between 1,900,000 and 2,000,000 bales since 1st November. My own hopes about 1st September, notwithstanding the late frosts, the heavy rains of July and the overflows of August, were that the crop might reach 2,100,000 bales; but after seeing the effects of those rains myself, in September and October, and getting together my information from the quarters I had not myself visited, I put my figures 1,900,000 bales, as the outside. And, with the most careful and diligent inquiry, I cannot now raise those figures, and feel confident that under no circumstances can the crop reach 2,000,000 bales. I will state my division of the crop and the substance of my present information:

Atlantic States,	650,000 bales.
Florida,	160,000 "
Mobile,	325,000 "
New Orleans and Texas,	765,000 "
	1,900,000 "

In the beginning of the season, my friends in the Atlantic States put their crop at 600,000 bales about, but the cotton which has been diverted from New Orleans, through their extended railroad system, in the direction of North Alabama and Tennessee and from the Chattahoochee, has been added to the receipt of Charleston and Savannah, though the less will go to Florida and New Orleans. In the Atlantic ports to the 12th inst., 550,000 bales had been received—adding to which 87,000 bales on hand in the interior towns on the 1st of March (which in the two weeks it is most likely have been diminished smartly), and you have 637,000 bales. Take from 637,000, 13,000 on hand 1st September, at Augusta and Hamburg, and you have 624,000 bales. The whole country is said to be effectually cleared of cotton, effected through early high rains, extended railroad transportation, and prices which the people were urged to rapidly avail themselves of. Their crop, not a bad one, would bring them a large amount of money, and weakened their expectation it could fall off so much West as was represented. All this indicates they cannot, with their present stocks, receive 113,000 bales more, which they must do to net them 650,000.

Florida has received, to the 14th March, 137,000, and with 13,000 at Columbus, would make 150,000; 10,000 bales more than which is not in her back country, from similar causes submitted with regard to the Atlantic crop.

We have received at Mobile 292,000 bales, and 30,000 more is as much as can be depended on. Our receipts will not be 5,000 bales from 325,000, as we have unqualified evidence that the country is cleared.

For New Orleans, besides my general information from different sections of its cotton region, and the recent expression of some of her best informed merchants, I have that from persons who have been over the country, which assure me that my figures for that and Texas, are over rather than under what their receipts will be. The impression among some, that the north Alabama and Tennessee crop was better in 1849 than in 1848, will be found erroneous. The season of 1848 was entirely propitious, while that of the past was not. Their crop was nearer to a crop than any section, as a section, made last year; but together it was short of the one preceding. The receipts, at New Orleans, are some 50,000 bales greater from thence than to the same date last year; but this is caused by the navigation of the Tennessee river having been opened from the beginning of the cotton season, and between the early shipments made to New Orleans and those by way of railroads to Charleston and Savannah. North Alabama and Tennessee are more nearly drained of cotton than at the same time of any former season, and it is from this point that buyers in New Orleans are calculating on receiving largely.

The production in other countries, as indicated by the imports into Europe, and by other most reliable accounts, is on the decline, and the past crop of India is said to have been badly injured; hence, the supply must be less than last year, when it is remembered, too, that the advanced prices here in June, July and August, caused every bale which could be abstracted from Brazil, Egypt and India, to be brought forward in last year's imports into Europe, and which caused them to be raised from 400,000 bales, in 1848, to 538,000 bales in 1849. I put it down, the receipts into Europe from those countries, this year, cannot reach 450,000 bales.

With regard to the probable production of cotton in this country hereafter, I may properly here remark, that its extension above its present average is not likely to soon take place, and for these reasons: All the lands suited to its culture have been bought up long since, and although new lands, more or less, are every year laid down in cotton, those additions are not more than equivalent to the entire abandonment, or, in other instances, deterioration of old lands continued in cultivation; and the diversion of labor steadily taking place from cotton for other industrial pursuits, such as construction of railroads, working on and in factories of various kinds, &c., must interfere with increase. The United States crops for the four past years were—1846, 1,779,000; 1847, 2,348,000; 1848, 2,729.000; 1849, 1,900,000 bales. The average of the first three years, would be 2,285,000 bales—of the three last years, 2,326,000 bales, or of the four years together, 2,189,000 bales. These figures very clearly and properly indicate what our crops may likely be. The receipt of 1848, of 2,729,000 bales, it must be remembered, was by no means the growth of that year, as particularly in the Atlantic States and New Orleans, large quantities of cotton, of the growth of former years, were, from the improved prices of May, June, July, &c., forwarded to the ports. I estimate the quantity of old cotton received, to have been,

In the Atlantic States,	150.000	bales.
Florida,	25,000	"
Mobile,	35,000	"
New Orleans,	90,000	"
Making	300,000	"

and reducing that crop to 2,429,000 bales. As the whole of the season of 1848 was, from beginning to end, unprecedentedly favorable, we may put that down as our highest probable point of production; at all events, until the prices permanently advance to figures inducing a return to investments in this culture, instead of those which have proved so profitable—manufactories, railroads, &c. Louisiana Texas and Florida, are daily increasing their sugar culture upon the sites of former cotton plantations, and even on the Alabama and Tombigbee, in Alabama, the culture has commenced, the cane ratooning finely, and this year we have received consignments from several planters, of this article, so rapidly increasing in consumption. I have devoted much space to this very important branch of the subject, which I am in hopes will not diminish our wish to carefully examine the next.

CONSUMPTION.

	Bales.
In the tables of Messrs. Collman & Stolterfoht, of Liverpool, accompanying their circular of January 25th, inst., they put down the consumption of cotton in Europe,	2,477,000
They add to that for direct shipment from the United States, to points not included in their tables, in Russia, Italy, Sweeden and Spain,	104,000
Messrs. Wilson, Hallett & Co., of Liverpool, in their circular of 1st January, add to this, for diminished stocks in the hands of manufacturers,	90,000
United States consumption,	518,000
Making a total of consumption in Europe and United States of	3,189,000

This enormous consumption has taken place, and replies to the most diligent inquiries satisfy me, that no market is burthened with a stock of manufactures in excess of its wants, which establishes a fact of commanding importance, namely: that this immense manufacture was the result of legitimate demand, and we have the encouraging assurance, that while the beauty, convenience and cheapness of cotton fabrics cause them to swell, with the swell of civilization, its production is confined within a limited space, and can nowhere be raised in competition with ourselves. All that is being said in relation to the English manufacturers influencing their government to adopt measures forcing the cultivation of cotton in India, &c., is as ridiculously ignorant as their resolutions, last fall, were, that "cotton worms and overflows were humbugs" Their government, in this enlightened era, will adopt no measure agreeing to give one pound sterling for ten shillings.

Having considered the extent of this crop and production, and the consumption of the past year, I now come to the

PROSPECT OF PRICES.

In regarding them, the supply and consumption are mainly important, but there are kindred dependencies which exercise great influence over them. The supply and price of food, the abundance or scarcity of money, state of trade, and the political condition of the leading governments, are to be carefully examined. I take pleasure in running through these with you. Several successive fine harvests, the abolition of the duty on breadstuffs into Great Britain, have together contributed to place the price of food at a low figure, and ensures its continued sufficiency. Money is not only abundant and interest unusually low, more bullion in the bank of England and bank of France[*] than was ever before known, but the prospect is decidedly good that it will so continue. Trade has never been on so large a scale, more active and on so safe a basis. The political condition of all the principal governments in Europe, is a most gratifying and satisfactory one. Over two years ago, monarchy in Europe was convulsed, and the embryo begotten over seventy years since in France, suddenly threw itself into existence, and over thirty-five millions of free people rejoiced in their new birth. The yearnings and fond dreams of the people, of substantially the most enlightened nation of Europe, have been accomplished—realized. Having pruned off much that was monarchical before. the transition to a republic was not violent, and when the polls were opened for all male citizens over twenty-one years of age to vote for his representatives and president, they enjoyed it with as much order as if they had been always accustomed to it. The high and formidable position of France among nations makes the consideration of what she will or may do of profound interest; and having examined the subject very closely, permit me to give my humble opinion on it. Playful and polite, frequently regardless of dollars and cents, I find her people quick, clear and correct in their perceptions. The system of instruction, which has been more or less persevered in since the long and brilliant reign of Louis XIV, in the seventeenth century, has improved on improvement until the whole atmosphere of France is enlightened, and hence the frequent assertion, that the French are ignorant and unable to appreciate and understand the blessings of civil liberty, will, on examination, be found entirely wrong.

Counter revolutions have been vehemently predicted within thirty days, ever since we received the news of the revolution of February, 1848, yet over two years have elapsed and the only revolution which has transpired, has been the adoption of a written constitution and the complete formation of the republic.

The intelligent correspondent of the National Intelligencer, in his last letter of 18th February, from London, says: "We think we are warranted in asserting, that the condition of France is improving in every respect, and in every class of people, excepting in the case of the agriculturists. The price of grain is falling every day." "With these exceptions, the condition of France, both in Paris and the provinces, is admitted, even by the opposers of the government, to be satisfactory." "The specie in the bank of France is said to exceed the currency." Further, McCulloch, in his Geographical Dictionary, in the last paragraphs of the last division of the article on France, when he is considering the probable continuance of the *then* existing order of things under Louis Philippe, says: "But though monarchy should be subverted in France, we look upon it as the nearest possible delusion to imagine that there can be anything like a repetition of the enormities and outrages that accompanied the revolution of 1789. Society is now arranged on a totally new basis; there are few or no abuses to rectify; the people are not sweating from the oppression of a host of feudal tyrants." "Provided, therefore, they be left to arrange their internal affairs as they may judge best, we incline to think that the other European nations have little to fear from any changes that may take place in the form of government in France. At present, it is a democracy with an hereditary head; the only change likely to happen, is to a democracy with an elective head." Views on so important a subject, so sagaciously expressed, should aid rapidly to satisfy the nervous that *there* can be no *revolution* in France. To abandon the privilege of universal suffrage and their constitution, cannot be feared by the thoughtful and intelligent. Well, as to the progressing improvement in the condition of the people in all the other leading governments, their political quiet, &c., not a word is requisite.

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[*] Over £34,000,000 sterling in them.

In conclusion, I will deduce, from the foregoing, that cotton will advance largely the present year, and maintain a high price *another*.

	Bales.
I have shown it is not probable the crop of the United States will exceed	1,900 000
The supply in Europe, from other countries, will not exceed	450,000
	2,350,000
I have shown that the consumption of 1849, was	3,189,000
	839,000

Leaving a deficit for 1850 of 839,000 bales, or largely above the entire fag-ends of stocks reported everywhere.

With regard to the supply of cotton, Messrs. Collmann & Stolterfoht remark, in their valuable circular of 25th January—"This is a matter of great anxiety during the uncertainty of the extent of the crop of the United States. Moderate estimates fix it at 2,1[illegible]0 000 bales; while others, judging from the large receipts in the ports, calculate upon nearer 2,400,000 bales. Even assuming the largest figure, Europe could not possibly receive more than 1,800,000 bales, after the wants of the United States are supplied, and from other sources we could at most, with the help of high prices, receive 500,000, which would barely suffice for a reduced consumption, assumed as above, without trenching on the moderate stocks with which we begin the year."

Let us examine the chances of Europe to get this 1,800,000. We have by the Prices Current of yesterday, Saturday, March 23, stocks in our ports 569,000 bales; to come in, say 250,000; making 820,000 bales. By this Price Current, we have exported to the North, net 422,000 bales, and the North will require 178,000 bales more for her consumption; but, putting her consumption at 550,000 bales per annum, for twenty-five weeks from 5th March, she will require 264,000 bales. However, take 178 000 bales from the 820,000 on hand and to come in, and 642,000 remain for Great Britain, France and the Continent. Add this 642,000 bales to what they have to-day got, say Great Britain 523 000, and France, &c., 275,000, and Europe will together get 1,440 000 bales, instead of the 1,800,000 bales, which Messrs. C. & S. say would barely suffice for their reduced consumption. Do these figures not prove, in connection with all the favoring, concurring causes enumerated, that cotton will and must advance? I do not think there can be a question as to the result, and will only add, with regard to prices this year, *what prices have been*. From 1795 to 1835, McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary reports cotton to have averaged, in Boston, over 20 cents a pound.

The average for the following years, in Mobile, was, as reported in our Annual Prices Currents, for 1833–'4, 14½ to 15½c.; 1834–'5, 17 @ 17½; 1835–'6, 14 to 19; 1836–'7, 10¾ to 16; 1837–'8, 7½ @ 12½; 1838–'9, 12½ to 10½, and, in 1825, it advanced to 28 pence a pound.

That prices must be high another year, it will be seen that the consumption of 1849 was 3,189,000, and it is increasing and destined to increase, if the raw material can be had. Without calculating for increase, let us allow that the consumption of

		Bales.
1850, would be.		3,189,000
1851,		3,189,000
		6,378,000
And let us see what is the possible supply of cotton for these years, say for 1849-'50—		
United States crop,	2,000,000	
Supply from India, &c.,	450,000	
Crop of United States, 1850–'51,	2,500,000	
Supply from India, &c.,	450,000=	5,400,000
		978,000

leaving an insufficiency at our highest estimated crop for this year, and possible crop of 1850–'1, of near one million bales.

What must be the result? High prices.

9. THE COTTON CROP OF 1850–'51.

There can be no question that we are to have another short crop of cotton. On almost every hand, except, perhaps, in Florida, the cry is raised and cannot be called into doubt. The result upon prices must be deeply felt. The failure of two successive crops, in a time of general peace, is an event which will have the most marked influence. It satisfies us of the truth of a position we have long held, that the *average* supply of this staple is limited, and has, perhaps, already reached its height. The corollary follows, that prices must rule a great deal higher, *on the average*, than they have done—the cost of production remaining unchanged and consumption advancing.

We write this paper at the close of June, and annex a few reports from the planting States, relating to the month of May:

North Alabama.—There is a general apprehension among planters, in this section of the country, as to the prospects of the present cotton crop. There have been such frequent and heavy rains, that the crops in the low lands have been flooded, and destroyed in some instances, and those on high lands have been greatly injured. Cold nights and winds have greatly increased the injury. Some planters express the opinion that they have not half a stand, and we have heard of none who expect to make a full crop.

Tennessee.—We still have rainy weather, and the accounts from our planting interior are most unpropitous. It is thought, that, under the most favorable weather now, not more than half our customary crop can be made. The continuous rains and chilling atmosphere have rotted most of the seed in the ground, or so diseased the young plant, as to settle the matter for this year. Hundreds are plowing up again, and others would do so, but for the scarcity of seed. However, our planters should not complain very bitterly, as they have not had a really short crop in ten or twelve years.

Louisiana.—We continue to hear most distressing accounts of the effects of the overflow. By a gentleman, recently from that district of the State, we learn that the Tensas and Ouachita rivers are both over their banks, and that all the neighboring plantations are submerged. In Tensas parish, of which he spoke more particularly, he said the desolation was very great, extending to the destruction of the crops as well as of the stock, and depriving many plantations, not only of all shelter, but also of all food for the proprietors and their negoes.

Mississippi.—It certainly is the fact, that this spring is the wettest, coldest and most backward of any that we have had for many years. We have been hoping and expecting, for pleasant, settled spring weather, for many weeks. But we have been doomed to continual disappointment. In consequence of the weather, many planters have had to plant their cotton the second time. Corn is small and does not look well. It is too early to predict anything about what the crop may be next fall. We can only say that, at present, the prospect is dull and gloomy enough.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.

1. SOUTHERN FACTORIES.

The number of cotton factories in four of the southern States is as follows:

	No. of factories.	*No. of spindles.*	*Capital employed.*	*Bales cot. consumed.*
Tennessee,	30	36,000	$100,000	12,000
Alabama,	11	16,962	500,000	6,000
Georgia,	36	51,140	121,000	27,000
South Carolina,	16	36,500	1,000,000	15,000

2. COTTON FACTORIES IN ALABAMA.

We were shown last week some samples of cottonades, ginghams, checks and osnaburgs, colored and plain, made at the factory in Huntsville, which, for quality and durability, would compare with similar goods made in the manufacturing towns of the North The colored goods were excellent, and, were we not assured to the contrary, we should have pronounced them eastern goods. The factory at Florence is doing a thrifty business. It works forty-six looms turning 1600 spindles, and produces 80,000 yards of cloth per week. Besides this large amount of cloth, it manufactures, also, 6,000 dozen of thread per week. The weekly consumption of cotton is about 6,000 pounds, averaging 750 bales of cotton per year. As an instance of the prosperity of factories in this region, a new one is about being established on the same stream, on the opposite side, which it is calculated will consume 40 bales of cotton per week. The factory in this city is about increasing the number of looms. At this time it works only forty, which are chiefly employed in manufacturing the four qualities of goods. In a few weeks the present number of looms will be increased to seventy-two. The cloths made at this factory are in high repute and meet with ready sales.

3. LIST OF COTTON FACTORIES IN THE STATE OF ALABAMA.

Bell factory, in Madison county,	2,500	spindles.
Florence factory, in Lauderdale county,	2,000	"
Decatur factory, in Lawrence county,	1,000	"
Tuscaloosa factory, in Bibb county,	1,800	"
Clement's factory, in Bibb county,	500	"
Fish-pond factory, in Tallapoosa county,	600	"
Tallassee " " "	1,000	"
Bradford's factory in Coosa county,	600	"
Warrior factory, in Tuscaloosa county,	1,000	"
Prattville factory, in Autauga county,	2,682	"
Autaugaville " " "	3, 80	"
Mobile factory, in Mobile county,	3,000	"

The machinery of the Mobile factory has been contracted for, I understand, and that of Autaugaville is now in the mill. D. P.

4. ANOTHER COTTON FACTORY.

The Charleston Mercury, in speaking of the satisfactory results attending the working of the present Charleston cotton mill, of which Gen. C. T. James was the engineer, thus alludes to a new one in contemplation in that city:

"We learn with much satisfaction, that his highly liberal offer to subscribe for half the stock of a $300,000 cotton mill, will insure, at an early day, the erection of a factory in our city on an enlarged scale, and which will compare favorably in style, finish and product, with any ever built in this country or Great Britain. The remarkably practical genius of Gen. James, his wide experience in all that concerns the cotton manufacture, and his careful study of all the questions connected with its successful introduction into the southern States, give great value and interest to the conviction he has expressed, and so strongly backed, in favor of the adaptation of Charleston for the prosecution of this great department of industry on an extensive scale. The extent to which he desires to identify himself with our manufactures is most gratifying proof of his perfect faith in their success, and may be considered as settling the question whether their profitable establishment is within our power."

5. MORE FACTORIES.

The Atlanta Intelligencer says: "We understand that the manufacturing company at Roswell, in Cobb county, have recently laid the foundation of a new factory near the site of the one now in operation. The new factory is to run 5,000 spindles, and the building materials are nearly all in readiness.

'We learn also, that Gov. McDonald has just completed a new factory in Campbell county, to run 5,000 spindles. Thus the work goes bravely on."

6. AUGUSTA—SOUTHERN MANUFACTURES.

We have heretofore noticed the various improvements which have been made in our city recently, in the manufacturing line, such as one of the most profitable cotton factories in the Union, two flour mills that will bear a comparison with any in New York, a machine shop, a bucket and barrel steam factory, two founderies, &c. We now have the pleasure of announcing a new branch of industry in the South, and in our city, which, from present appearances, promises to yield a good profit to its enterprising projector.

Those who have visited the city will recollect the building known as the Augusta theater. The spirit of improvement has converted it to another and more profitable use. The ground flour has been converted into a brewery, and the second story into one of the handsomest and best arranged concert rooms in the South. The room occupies the whole space of the building, without pillar or post to interrupt the sound, and has an arched roof full twenty feet in height. The lower part, with an adjoining building just erected, is the brewery. Its enterprising proprietor, Mr. Martin Frederick, invited us yesterday to inspect its interior arrangements and test the quality of his brewing He has two samples on tap, one for shipment, the other for immediate use. We tasted of both, and feel no hesitancy in pronouncing his beer equal to any brought from the North, and have no doubt, when he gets well to work, he will be able to produce an article altogether superior.

This brewery will be a great accommodation to the surrounding country, for not only will purchasers be enabled to get a fresh and good article, but at a much less price than that from the North commands. Mr. Frederick will be able to furnish his beer at six dollars, if the barrel is returned, and his establishment, at present, is capable of turning out two hundred barrels per week.

The ladies will also find this brewery convenient; for, when in want of that necessary article, yeast, they can always obtain a supply by sending for it.

7. COLEMAN'S GRANITE FLOUR MILL, AUGUSTA.

We are pleased to notice the final completion, after many delays, of this durable and elegant structure. It is now one of the most perfect establishments of the kind in the United States, and will stand, for ages, a monument of Augusta enterprise, and of architectural and mechanical skill. It is built entirely of granite, brought from the head of the canal, and is a solid and showy edifice. No expense has been spared in its interior structure and arrangements, to make it do good work. The machinery is of the most perfect kind, and moves like clock-work.

The small castings are from the excellent foundry of Messrs. Neeson & Tilkey, of this city, and are said to be equal to any that are brought from any quarter.

We have had the opportunity of testing the flour turned out by this mill, and we are prepared to pronounce it a beautiful article, equal to the best brands brought into this market.

We can now say, with perfect confidence, that Augusta can furnish, from her two merchant mills—that of J. L. Coleman & Co., and that of Cunningham & Linton—as good flour as any other city in the United States.

8. EXPORTS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The Liverpool and Manchester journals have been, for some time past, representing trade, in the manufacturing districts, to be in a depressed condition; that the weekly deliveries of cotton to the trade had materially decreased, and that many of the mills were soon to commence working short time.

We have taken some pains to prepare the following table from official returns to the Board of Trade, for the first quarter of the year 1850, with a comparison for 1849, which are as follows:

Exports of British and Irish produce and manufactures, from the United Kingdom, in the three months ending 5th April, 1850, compared with those in the corresponding months of the year 1849:

	1349.	1850.
Cotton piece goods,	£4,442,478	4,910,648
" lace and patent net,	118,943	144,022
" thread for sewing,	92.070	100,229
" stockings,	20,135	21,653
" of all other descriptions,	116,710	57,977
" yarn,	1,389.675	1,225,390
Total cotton goods,	6,180,011	6,459,919
Linen goods and yarn,	945,037	1,137,016
Silk " " and twist,	187,431	284,969
Woolen " "	1,697,211	2,086,958
Wool, raw, sheep's and lambs',	94,148	114,379
Millinery and haberdashery,	259.347	351,930
Leather, manufactured and unmanufactured,	105,255	144,892
Metals, viz.: iron, pig,	67,706	67,923
" bar, bolt and rod,	465.341	660,881
" wire and cast,	42,167	59,887
" wrought, of all sorts,	296,096	333,940
steel, unwrought,	76,319	82,422
copper, in pigs and manufactured,	389,240	424,601
brass, of all sorts,	25,412	23,832
lead,	44,045	55,312
tin, unwrought and in tin plates,	189.437	257,599
Hardware and cutlery,	443,123	591,211
Machinery of all kinds,	78,048	182,407
Beer and ale,	130,902	144,826
Candles and soap,	58,103	76,951
Coals and calm,	263,208	222,027
Cordage and cables,	35,706	45,397
Fish,	24,825	24,481
Oils and colors,	126,923	163,788
Stationery,	62.081	85,584
Sugar, refined,	103,330	90,724
Butter and cheese,	47,855	49,698
Soda,	72,426	80,274
Glass,	57,462	70,942
Earthen ware,	197.069	230,133
Salt,	56,709	50,159
Total declared value,	£12,822,033	£14,656,153
Increase, for three months, over 1849,		1,833,120

By the above figures it appears, that there is an increase in the total amount of exports, for the first quarter of 1850, of nearly two millions pounds sterling. This increase, too, on almost every article of British manufacture, does not confirm that *dull state of trade*, the cotton circulars, received by each steamer, would have us believe. Neither do we think the quantity or *value* of goods retained for home consumption has been diminished, or that the internal trade of the kingdom has fallen off. The fact is apparent, that cheap food and steady employment, thus far. this year, must have given the working classes the ability to *increase*, and not decrease, their consumption of the coarser fabrics, notwithstanding the advance in price, caused by the higher rates demanded for the raw material.—*N. Y. Courier and Enquirer.*

9. UNITED STATES COMMERCE.

Year.	*Domestic exports.*	*Foreign exports.*	*Total exports.*	*Total imports.*
1821,	$43,671,894	$21,302,488	$64,974.382	$62.585,724
1822,	49,784 079	22,286,202	72,160,281	83,241,541
1823,	47,155,408	27,543,722	74,699,030	77.579,267
1824,	50,649,500	25,337,157	75,986,657	80,549,007
	191,350,881	96,469,469	287,820,360	303,955,539

1825,	66,944,745	32,590,643	99,535,388	96,340,075
1826,	53,055,710	24,539,612	77,595,322	84,974,477
1827,	58,921,691	23,403,136	82,324,827	79,481,068
1828,	50,669,669	21,595,017	72,264,086	88,509,824
	229,591,815	102,128,408	331,720,223	349,305,444
1829,	55,700,139	16,658,478	72,358,671	74,492,527
1830,	59,462,029	14,387,479	73,849,508	70,876,920
1831,	61,277,057	20,033,526	81,310,583	103,191,124
1832,	63,137,470	24,039,473	87,176,943	101,029,266
	239,576,749	75,118,956	314,695,705	349,589,837
1833,	70,317,698	19,822,735	90,140,433	108,118,311
1834,	81,024,162	23,312,811	104,336,973	126,521,332
1835,	101,183,082	20,504,495	121,693,577	149,895,742
1836,	106,916,680	21,746,360	128,663,040	189,980,305
1837,	95,564,414	21,845,962	117,419,376	140,980,177
1838,	96,033,821	12,452,795	108,486,616	113,717,404
1839,	103,533,891	17,494,525	121,028,416	162,092,132
	654,579,748	137,188,683	791,768,431	991,305,133
1840,	113,895,634	18,190,312	132,085,946	107,141,519
1841,	106,382,722	15,469,081	121,851,803	127,946,177
1842,	92,969,996	11,721,538	104,691,534	100,162,087
	313,248,352	45,380,931	358,629,283	335,249,783
1843,	77,793,783	6,552,697	84,346,480	64,753,799
1844,	100,183,497	10,914,781	111,128,278	108,434,702
1845,	99,299,776	15,346,830	114,464,606	117,254,564
1846,	102,141,893	11,346,623	113,488,516	121,691,797
	379,418,949	44,190,931	423,427,880	412,134,862
1847,	150,637,464	8,051,561	158,689,025	146,545,638
1848,	132,904,121	21,128,010	154,032,131	154,998,928
1849,	132,666,955	13,088,865	145,755,820	147,857,439
	416,208,540	42,268,436	458,476,976	449,402,005

RECAPITULATION BY PERIODS.

1821-24,	191,350,881	96,469,469	287,820,350	303,955,539
1825-28,	229,591,815	102,128,408	331,720,223	349,305,444
1829-32,	239,576,749	75,118,956	314,695,705	349,589,837
1833-39,	654,579,748	137,188,683	791,768,431	991,305,133
1840-42,	313,248,352	45,380,931	358,629,283	335,249,783
1843-46,	379,418,949	44,190,931	423,427,880	412,134,862
1847-49,	416,208,540	42,268,436	458,476,976	449,402,005

Total domestic exports in 29 years,	$2,423,974,034
" foreign " "	542,745,814
Total exports, domestic and foreign,	$2,966,720,848
" imports,	3,190,942,603
Excess of imports in 29 years,	$224,221,755

Which is about eight per cent. on the total value of exports during the same period. And this excess all occurred prior to the year 1840, as appears from what follows:

	Excess of imports.	Excess of exports.
1st period—tariff of 1816,	$ 16,135,189	....
2d " " 1824,	17,585,221	....
3d " " 1828,	34,894,132	....
4th " " 1832,	199,536,702	....
5th " compromise reduction of tariff of 1832,	....	$23,397,500
6th " tariff of 1842,	....	11,475,018
7th " " 1846,	....	9,074,971
Totals,	$268,151,244	$43,929,489

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1. ALABAMA AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

We have received, from Lewis Troost, Esq., chief engineer of the above railroad, a pamphlet containing a copy of a letter by him to the President of the above road, illustrated by a map, giving the results of a reconnoissance of the proposed route, together with various statistics showing the resources of the country penetrated by it, together with estimates of business which the road will command, not only from the country along its line, but also from its connection with other lines of intercommunication.

The proposed route of the Alabama and Tennessee River railroad is as follows: Commencing at Selma, the route passes through portions of the counties of Dallas, Perry and Bibb, to Montevallo, in Shelby county; thence it diverges north-eastwardly, through Shelby and Talladega counties to Talladega town; thence it continues, through the counties of Talladega and Benton, to Gadsden, in Cherokee county. Here it is proposed to connect with the Tennessee and Coosa railroad, chartered to extend from Gadsden to Gunter's Landing, on the Tennessee river.

About twenty-six miles of the line—commencing at Selma and running through the valley of Beach Creek, thence across the dividing ridge, between Beach and Mulberry creeks, into Mulberry creek valley—were graded in 1837, and will require but little additional work to place them in condition to receive the superstructure. From the termination of the graded part of the line on to Montevallo, Talladega and Gadsden, the country presents several practicable lines, through a series of well-directed valleys, affording excellent routes for your railroad. At this date, we have traced two lines through from Selma to Gadsden, and I have the pleasure of informing you, that we will be able to make a *cheap* and *effective* railway, *with a maximum grade of forty feet* to the mile, ascending south, the direction in which the greatest amount of freight is to be transported.

Timber, of the best kind, for the whole distance, and excellent building stone for three-fourths the route, are abundant, and the soil, along the whole line, is unexceptionable for road making.

From Gadsden to Gunter's Landing, a survey for a railroad was made, in 1846, by Spencer Brown, Esq., civil engineer. The results of this survey are known.*

The valleys intervening between the mountain ranges of north Alabama offer several very practicable routes for connecting your railroad with the Georgia and South Carolina railroads, and with the Middle East Tennessee and Virginia railroads. The two most obvious connections are—

1. By Jacksonville to Rome, in Georgia, the western terminus of the Georgia railroads.

2. From a point near Gadsden, up the valley of Wills creek, to Chattanooga, at the junction of the Georgia railroads with the Nashville and Chattanooga railroad.

Both of these connections are easy of construction, and their relative merits can only be ascertained by a thorough examination of the different routes, and a proper consideration of the relative advantages to be derived by your railroad and by the country interested in it. One or the other, or both, of these connections must inevitably follow the construction of your railroad, thus completing the union of the Gulf of Mexico with the great railway improvements of Georgia, South Carolina and Tennessee.

The Alabama and Tennessee River railroad is emphatically a *State* and a *national enterprise.*

The State of Alabama embraces, within its limits, an area of about 50,275 square miles. The Tennessee river runs through the northern part of the State, from its north-east to its north-west corner. South of the Tennessee river a mountain range, being the southern extremity of the great Appalachian chain, extends nearly parallel with the river, from the east to the west boundary of the

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* The Tennessee and Coosa Railroad Company will be organized shortly; and, by virtue of an act passed at the last session of the legislature, it will be incorporated with the Alabama and Tennessee River Railroad Company. Thus the entire route, from the Alabama to the Tennessee river, will be under one company and under one direction.

State. The waters rising in the southern slope of this mountain range, drain the middle and southern sections of the State and form the Coosa, Tallapoosa, Cahawba, Warrior, Tombigbee and Alabama rivers. By this disposition of the mountains and rivers, three grand natural divisions of the State are constituted, viz.:

1. The northern division—having an area of 7,255 square miles, north of the mountain range, deprived of a natural communication with the middle and southern divisions, and having access to a market, for a part of the year only, by a tedious and dangerous navigation of from 1,400 to 1,800 miles, by the Tennessee, Ohio and Mississippi rivers.

2. The middle division—having an area of 22,000 square miles, south of the mountain range extending to the parallel of 32° 30′ north latitude, at the head of the navigable waters of the bay of Mobile, and dependent on flatboats and upon wagons, over badly graded earth roads, as the means of transportation for its productions.

3 The southern division—having an area of 21,020 square miles, extending to the southern boundary of the State and to the Gulf of Mexico, and drained by a system of rivers unsurpassed in navigable utility.

We thus perceive that, of the State of Alabama, a seventh part is—commercially, and, therefore, socially and politically—a distinct member of the State, compelled, by natural barriers, to trade and identify itself, in interest, with other States and communities; and that over one-third part of the State has only a temporary, uncertain and expensive outlet for its productions and communication with its seaport.

An enterprise, therefore, which, like your railroad, commences at the northern limit of that division of the State open to a free and uninterrupted navigation to the Gulf of Mexico; which passes through and connects those divisions of the State deprived of an outlet for their productions; which unites all of them by bonds of interest; which affords the safest, most certain and capable means of transit and transport, and which will develop rich and incalculable mineral resources must be, emphatically, a great State work.

It is a national enterprise. Take a map of the United States—trace the connections which it will make by its proposed branch with the railroads now completed and in contemplation, and with rivers—and you will observe, that it connects the Gulf of Mexico with the south Atlantic, middle, western and north Atlantic States.

Let us now turn our attention from these general considerations to the prospects of your railroad, as an investment for capital, and to the effects which will be accomplished by its construction.

The success of a railroad is proportionate to its capacity for transport, and to the quantity of freight, and number of passengers, which it can obtain to transport.

The capacity of a railroad for transport depends on its ascending grades, or inclinations, which it has to overcome, its curvature, and its smoothness and evenness of surface. The two first requisites are governed by the surface of the country, and the latter by the plan and materials adopted for construction.

The quantity of freight, and the number of passengers, depend on the extent, population and productive character, mineral and agricultural, of the country traversed and placed in communication by the railroad.

AGRICULTURAL CHARACTER AND RESOURCES OF ALABAMA.

The route traverses a fertile and well-settled agricultural country, for twenty-five miles from Selma; thence it passes over a sandy, clay and gravel region, covered with long-leaved yellow pine, for twenty miles; thence, for ten miles, it continues through the well-cultivated valley of the Cahawba; thence, to the Coosa river, there are many good spots of land, in small bodies, and the country generally is capable of supporting a good population.

The counties of Talladega and Benton are equal to any in the State, as regards soil, wealth, health, and capacity for supporting a dense population. They are settled by a thriving, industrious, independent and intelligent people. The soil is well adapted to the cultivation of cotton, wheat and corn. The country is well watered, abounding in streams affording ample water power for manufactures; and, in fact, it combines advantages for sustaining a dense, industrial and manufacturing population, not to be surpassed by any country in the So[illegible] or elsewhere.

Owing to the obstructions in the Coosa river, the planters of this section a[illegible] compelled to wagon their produce to Wetumpka, a distance of from 60 to 90 miles; or to the Coosa river, above the shoals, at the mouth of Canoe creek, a distance of from 20 to 60 miles, where it is transported, up stream, 160 miles, to Rome, the western terminus of the Georgia railroads; thence it is carried, nearly 400 miles, on railroads, to Charleston or Savannah. By this latter outlet, a great proportion of the trade of the middle, eastern and north eastern counties of Alabama, is diverted from Mobile, notwithstanding the frequent shifting and handling of freight, and the long distance of railroad transport, required. Of the article of cotton, it is stated, that from 8,000 to 10,000 bales, at the high rate of 86 cents per 100 lbs., equivalent to $4 30 per bale, are annually sent from this section to a market by this channel. This fact, in the course of trade, so injurious to the interests of Mobile, and of the State at large, shows, among other things, the great change in its natural direction, which can be accomplished by railroads, on account of their safety, certainty and dispatch.

From Benton county to the valley of the Tennessee river, the soil of the high lands is thin and generally poor, but the valleys are fertile and very thickly settled by small farmers, who live in the enjoyment of health, and in the receipt of small profits, owing to their isolated position and the difficulty of getting their produce to market, most of which passes up the Coosa and Tennessee rivers to the Georgia railroads.

The mountain table land of this section affords extensive ranges for cattle and sheep, a considerable number of the former of which are driven to south Alabama.

The valley of the Tennessee is one of the most desirable agricultural sections of Alabama. Being one of the earliest settled districts of the State, it is now the center of wealth, hospitality and refinement, and the abode of a fixed, permanent population. The lands are rich, and, by the present mode of culture, inexhaustible. Almost the whole extent of tillable land is placed in requisition and covered with thriving, well-cultivated farms and fat stock.

Until within the last year, the course of trade of the Tennessee valley was down stream, by the Tennessee, Ohio and Mississippi rivers, to New Orleans; but, since the opening of the Georgia railroads to the Tennessee river, a considerable proportion, particularly of the cotton, has changed its direction, up stream, to Chattanooga, from whence it is transported, by railroads, to the south Atlantic ports.

Gunter's landing, the terminus of the Alabama and Tennessee River railroad, being the most southern point of the Tennessee river, and being central to all that part of north Alabama north of the river, above the Muscle Shoals, is the most advantageous point of shipment to the Gulf. It is 62 miles above the head of the Muscle Shoals, 50 miles above Decatur, the terminus of the Decatur and Tuscumbia railroad, 30 miles above Whitesburg, which is 10 miles south of Huntsville, and about 32 miles from Huntsville by a practicable railroad route.

There are now produced in north Alabama, above the Muscle Shoals, about 60,000 bales of cotton.

By inspecting the map of the United States accompanying this letter, it will be perceived, that the location of your railway is an admirable one to command an immense through trade and travel.

It is a link in the great chain of railroads now constructing and projected, on the most direct, shortest and most expeditious route which can be selected, to connect the Gulf of Mexico with the middle and north-eastern Atlantic States—a route which will present one continuous line of railroads, passing through the most healthy and picturesque sections of the Union.

This great chain of railroads may be said to commence at Portland, in the State of Maine; thence to extend to Boston, New York, Philadelphia Baltimore, and to Winchester, Virginia. Up to this town, the line of railroads, with short gaps of steamboat travel, is now completed; thence to Stanton and to Abington, through the great valley of Virginia, and on to Knoxville, Tenn., a part of the route is under contract. From Knoxville to the Georgia railroads, the connection, by railway, will soon be completed. From the Georgia roads, the connection with your railroad, either from Rome or Chattanooga, will naturally follow the completion of your enterprise. Indeed, it may be anticipated—charters having been obtained at the last sessions of the legislatures of Georgia and Alabama, for a railrood from Jacksonville, in Benton county, to Rome, or to some point further south, on the Georgia State road as may be found most practicable.

The Coosa river is navigable for small steamboats 160 miles, from Rome to the mouth of Canoe creek, a few miles below Gadsden. I have been informed, by an experienced captain, now running a steamboat on this part of the river, that, by an expenditure of a small sum of money to remove a few rocks in the channel below Rome, boats drawing 30 inches might ply the year through; as it is, he states the draught of water, for seven and eight months in the year, to be from five to six feet. The Tennessee river affords good navigation for small steamboats throughout the year, from the crossing of the Nashville and Chattanooga railroad, to the head of the Muscle Shoals.

At Selma we have an excellent steamboat navigation, at all seasons of the year, to the Gulf of Mexico. The Alabama river is particularly free from snags and other obstructions, and is considered one of the safest rivers for steamboats in the Union.

The Georgia and South Carolina railroads place your railroad in communication with the south Atlantic States, while the Nashville and Chattanooga railroad will connect it with middle Tennessee, and, eventually, with Kentucky and the Western States, by the proposed lines to Henderson, Kentucky, and to Cincinnati. From Cincinnati, the railroad line is now completed to Lake Erie. A line is proposed on the south side of Lake Erie; this, with the New York roads, completes another very remarkable communication between your road and the north-eastern cities, through the western and northern States.

It will be seen, by inspection of the map, that it is evidently the interest of Huntsville, and, in fact, of all that part of north Alabama east of the Muscle Shoals and north of the Tennessee river, to direct their efforts for a connection with the Alabama and Tennessee River railroad, for all the purposes of trade to New Orleans, Mobile, and to the Gulf of Mexico.

Saving of distance and time, celerity, safety and certainty of movement, are the grand desiderata of the active, energetic people of our country; and that line of improvement, which combines these essential requisites, will command the preference

The following table of comparative distances will illustrate the advantages of your road. The distances are obtained from the published accounts of distances by railroad and steamboat travel, and by measuring distances on the map, on lines not yet completed, and allowing an increase due to the selection of a proper route:

TABLE OF COMPARATIVE DISTANCES.

	Miles.
Boston to Mobile, via Richmond, Wilmington, Charleston, Atlanta, West Point, Montgomery and Alabama river,	1,803
New York to Mobile, via same route,	1,565
Philadelphia to Mobile, via same route,	1,476
Baltimore to Mobile, via same route,	1,379
Boston to Mobile, via Winchester, Staunton, Abingdon, Knoxville, Rome, Selma and Alabama river,	1,582
New York to Mobile, via same route,	1,344
Philadelphia to Mobile, via same route,	1,258
Baltimore to Mobile, via same route,	1,158
From the above cities, respectively, difference nearer Mobile by the Alabama and Tennessee River railroad route, in time, 18¾ hours, and in distance,	221
Baltimore to Mobile, via Richmond, Wilmington, Manchester, Augusta, Atlanta, Montgomery and Alabama river,	1,356
Baltimore to Mobile, via Winchester, Knoxville, Selma and Alabama river,	1,158
Difference nearer Mobile by Alabama and Tennessee River railroad,	198
Huntsville to Charleston, via railroads,	527
Huntsville to Mobile, via Alabama and Tennessee River railroad,	463
Difference nearer Mobile, via Alabama and Tennessee River railroad,	64
Huntsville to New Orleans, via projected railroad to Memphis and via river,	1,058
Huntsville to New Orleans, via Alabama and Tennessee River railroad, Alabama river and lake route,	622
Difference nearer New Orleans, by Alabama and Tennessee River railroad,	436

Huntsville to New Orleans, via Tuscumbia railroad, Tennessee river, and Ohio and Mississippi rivers,	1,458
Huntsville to New Orleans, via Alabama and Tennessee River railroad, Selma, Mobile and the lake,	622
Difference nearer New Orleans by Alabama and Tennessee River railroad,	836
Huntsville to Memphis,	222
Huntsville to Selma,	225
Difference in favor of Memphis,	3
Nashville to New Orleans, via Cumberland, Ohio and Mississippi rivers,	1,323
Nashville to New Orleans, via Nashville and Chattanooga, and Alabama and Tennessee River railroads, Alabama river and the lake,	778
Difference nearer New Orleans, via Alabama and Tennessee River railroad,	545
Nashville to Charleston, via Nashville and Chattanooga, and Georgia and South Carolina railroads,	589
Nashville to Mobile, via Nashville and Chattanooga, and Alabama and Tennessee railroads,	617
Difference nearer Charleston,	28
New Orleans to Knoxville, Tenn., via Gulf of Mexico, Charleston and Georgia, and South Carolina railroads,	1,747
New Orleans to Knoxville, via Mobile, Alabama river, Alabama and Tennessee River railroad and Rome,	757
Difference in favor of the Alabama and Tennessee River railroad,	990
Galveston to Knoxville, via Charleston and South Carolina, and Georgia railroads,	2,122
Galveston to Knoxville, via Mobile, Alabama and Tennessee River railroad,	1,120
Difference in favor of Alabama and Tennessee River railroad,	1,002
Isthmus of Tehuantepec to Knoxville, via Charleston, &c.,	2,182
Isthmus of Tehuantepec to Knoxville, via Mobile, &c.,	1,638
Difference,	544
Isthmus of Panama to Knoxville, via Charleston, &c.,	2,497
Isthmus of Panama to Knoxville, via Mobile, &c.,	2,198
Difference,	299

2. MEMPHIS AND CHARLESTON RAILROAD COMPANY.

This company was organized on the twenty-ninth of April, by the choice of the following gentlemen as directors, viz.: James C. Jones, R. C. Rinkley and Daniel Looney, of Tennessee; Judge Clayton, of Mississippi; George P. Beirne and Robert Fearn of Madison county, Wm. A. Austin of Jackson county, R. M. Patton of Lauderdale county, and J. C. Goodloe of Franklin county, Alabama.

The report of the commissioners, to receive subscriptions of stock, was presented, from which it appeared that about $1,200,000 had been subscribed, and upon the greater portion of which fifty cents per share, or two per cent., had been paid.

C. F. M. Garnett, Esq, now chief engineer of the Virginia and Tennessee railroad, has been chosen chief engineer of the above work. We have not learned whether he has or not accepted the office.

Governor James C. Jones has been chosen president of the company. This position was assigned to him, not only by the unanimous voice of the directors, but of the whole community interested in the work, and is justly due to his eminent services in its behalf.

From the liberal means provided, with which to commence the work—the wealth of the country to be traversed by it, and from the character of those interested in its direction—we confidently expect to see it energetically prosecuted and completed at an early day. It is a work of the first magnitude—of great importance to every part of the country—and its completion will form a new era in the progress of the South.

3. NORTH CAROLINA RAILROAD.

Progress of the Manchester Railroad.—The Wilmington Commercial says: "We learn that there has been $[illegible]0,[illegible]00 worth of work done on the Wilmington and Manchester railroad, west of the Pee Dee river, and that $2[illegible],000 worth has been done on the eastern end of the road; and that there are upward of two hundred men now working on the road, and on the first of August it is expected that four hundred will be engaged on the work. Preliminary steps have been taken to buy iron for the western end, and in all probability contracts will be made at the same time for the other part of the road. Negotiations have been opened with a northern company to complete all the unfinished work of the road.

"These are cheering facts, and show that there is no cause to apprehend any danger as to the fate of this enterprise. It will not only be done, but will be put in operation quite as early as the most sanguine of our people expected."

4. NORTH CAROLINA RAILROAD.

The Central Railroad.—This road is not yet quite out of the woods. After the whole amount ($,000,000) of individual subscription was supposed to be secured, it turned out that the subscription of $ 0,000, by the Petersburg railroad, could not legally be made. Upon $47,000, also, of individual subscription, the cash payment of five per cent. was not made, as is required, and, of course, this sum could not be counted as available. These failures leave $76,000 yet to be raised, which will be done, we have no doubt, with but little delay.

This whole movement, in North Carolina, has been in a few hands—and what has been accomplished, has been the work of a few leading men in that State. Their efforts, we regret to say, have met with but a cold response from the great mass of the people. These men, embracing, among others, Messrs. Morehead, Graham, Saunders, Graves, Carter and Lord, fully appreciate the necessity of the proposed work, to enable North Carolina to maintain a respectful relative position in the great family of States. Nature has favored her with a fine soil, without giving her those natural advantages, in navigable rivers, for the transportation of her products, which most of the States possess.. Having but limited means of forwarding her products to a market, she has but little commerce, and, consequently, possesses no commercial center, where, as in other States, is collected a large amount of wealth to be returned to the country, to be expended in the further development of its resources. Her leading men saw, that, unless she availed herself of those agents which modern science has provided, and which are so potent in the production of wealth, and which other States are eagerly subjecting to their use, she must apparently retrograde, and present a most striking and humiliating contrast to the rapid progress of her neighbors. The few who saw and felt this, have found it almost impossible to infuse the great mass with any of the spirit and conviction which they felt. The consequence has been, that, with the most energetic and persevering efforts of the first men of the State, and with a greater part of it as a field for their exertions, $1,000,000 has not yet been raised. There is not a town in New England, of 15,000 inhabitants, but would, under similar inducements, have raised an equal sum in one week. This sum, however, will soon be forthcoming; and when it is obtained, North Carolina will owe a debt of gratitude to those who have been instrumental in procuring it, which she can but indifferently appreciate and which she will never repay. If these men had known the task that was before them, we will be bound to say that they never would have undertaken it, and that they will never undertake a similar job.

5. BALTIMORE AND THE WEST.

A number of the merchants of Baltimore were addressed, on Thursday night, by Mr. L. C. Haynes, of Tennessee, in Union Hall, in respect to the advantages likely to result to the city of Baltimore, from the completion of certain Tennessee improvements.

He stated the fact, and displayed the evidences on which it rested, that the commercial prosperity of the Atlantic cities depends on their commercial connection with the Mississippi valley.

Mr H. said, that a striking proof of this truth could be found in the examination and comparison of the commerce of Virginia and N. York. They are both Atlantic States—both started together in the race of independence, wealth, population and commerce—both possess harbors among the best in the Union. Virginia had the advantage in the beginning. Her imports amounted, in 1769, to $4,255,800; the imports of New York, to $945,000. Thus, they started together.

But New York, perceiving that her commercial prosperity depended upon her connection with the West from which she might draw the materials for subsistence, manufactures and commerce, made haste to form that connection through her railways and canal. Virginia, self-satisfied with her natural advantages, did nothing to bring herself into commercial communication with the Mississippi valley. She slept at her post until a very recent date.

What (Mr. H. asked) had been the result. In 183[illegible], the imports of Virginia had gone down from $4,255,800 to $1,213,000, while the imports of New York, in the same period, had gone up from $945,000 to $57,000,000. Why? Because New York was connected, and Virginia unconnected, with the rich, the fertile, the great and the growing West.

The tonnage of Virginia, in 1791, was 33,239 tons—in 1838, it had gone down to 7,405 tons; while the tonnage of the city of New York alone had gone up, in 1838, to 400,971 tons.

Mr. Haynes said, he repeated that it had become a primary truth, almost self-evident, which irresistibly commands the assent of all enlightened minds, that the commercial prosperity of the Atlantic cities, depends on their commercial connection with the great valley of the Mississippi; and that Baltimore perceives and appreciates this truth, is made manifest through her noble and unceasing exertions to tap, by the Baltimore and Ohio railroad, the valley of the Ohio. And if Baltimore had come to the conclusion, that one connection with the West would be good for her, it follows, by irresistible deduction, that two would be better.

It was under these impressions, Mr. Haynes said, he desired to direct the attention of the merchants of Baltimore, to the advantages likely to result from contemplated lines of public works in Tennessee, by which this city is to have another connection, by steam, with the Mississippi valley.

Through a mixed route of railroads, river and canal, there is already an easy transit to Lynchburg. From Lynchburg to the Tennessee line, the Tennessee and Virginia railroad is in rapid and vigorous course of completion. At furthest, it will be finished in four years—the State of Virginia having taken three-fifths of the stock. If you start at Memphis east, you will find a company organized by the style of the Memphis and Charleston railroad company, with Governor Jones at its head, and a subscription of stock to the amount of $1,300,000. Running from Memphis, it will intersect the Nashville and Chattanooga railroad near the latter place. The Nashville and Chattanooga railroad was all, he believed, under contract. The actual subscription of stock to that work, together with the bonds to be guaranteed by the State of Tennessee, was $2,588,450 It will be completed to Chattanooga by 1851.

The East Tennessee and Georgia railroad, completes the line to the city of Knoxville. Funds have been subscribed by individuals and appropriated by the State, very nearly sufficient to complete this work in two years. Eighty miles are graded, on forty miles of which the timbers are down, ready for the iron. An agent has been appointed by the Governor, under act of assembly, to go to Europe, to purchase iron for this work. The completion, then, in four years, of the entire line of works—from Memphis, on the one hand, to the city of Knoxville, and from Lynchburgh, on the other, to the Tennessee line—is as certain as any event depending on human agency.

From Knoxville to the Virginia line, a distance of one hundred and twenty miles, it will be perceived, said Mr. Haynes, is not, as yet, sufficiently provided for It is true, a company has been incorporated, engineers are in the field, surveying the routes with a view to the location of the road, and a subscription made to the work of $650,000. Shall this great line of public works, about to stretch from the city of Memphis to the city of Baltimore, be kept asunder by a [illegible] to complete this central link from Knoxville to the Virginia line, but one hundred and twenty miles in length? This is a question he came to put to the merchants of Baltimore, interested in the trade of the West.

If you think this central link in this great chain, from the father of waters to your beautiful city, would yield a fair dividend on the capital stock—if you [illegible] its completion would greatly enhance the trade of Baltimore, with the western merchants, we should be glad if you would aid its speedy construction, by a subscription to its capital stock.

You see, that the capacity of the merchants of Baltimore to trade with the [illegible] of the West, is limited by their capacity to purchase of you. Their ability to purchase of you, is limited by the capacity of the people to purchase of them. The capacity of the people to purchase of them is limited, by the want of all adequate means of commercial intercourse, by which their surplus products can be carried to those points of demand where consumers lie under the necessity of purchasing them. If it should be your pleasure to give your aid to the construction of this line, you will greatly increase the capacity and ability of the people to purchase of the Western merchants, and them of you. Thus, you might contribute powerfully to increase the trade of Baltimore with the merchants and people of the West.

Mr. Haynes said, that a statistical view of the productions of Tennessee, unwooed by markets and unstimulated by adequate prices, would indicate what would be the advantages of her trade, were she and this city brought into cheaper and more rapid communication by means of steam.

Mr. Haynes said, Tennessee produces 13,000,000 of bushels of wheat. Deducting one-half for consumption, would leave 6,500,000 bushels for export. The highest average price in Tennessee, he said, was fifty cents. The total value of the sum, which might be exported, would be $3,250,000. If brought to the Atlantic slope, it would pay railroad charges and yield 80 cents per bushel—or an aggregate sum of $5,200,000, instead of $2,250,000—and an increased profit, to the wheat growers of Tennessee, of $1,950,000.

She produces, he said, 74,000,000 of bushels of Indian corn. Of this sum between two and three millions of bushels are exported, principally to New Orleans, over a river transit of 1,200 or 1,500 miles. After deducting freight, insurance, commission and damage, it yields a very poor profit to the producer. To deduct one-half for consumption, would leave for export 32,000,000 of bushels. It is worth, in Tennessee, from ten to fifteen or twenty cents per bushel. It would bear the cost of freight to the Atlantic cities, and yield thirty-five cents. Here would be a gain to the corn growers of Tennessee, over the highest market price at home, of $4,800,000.

The cotton crop of north Alabama, middle Tennessee and north Mississippi, is about 400,000 bales. From Memphis, as the starting point, the cost of transporting a bale of cotton to the eastern cities (compounded of freight, insurance, factorage, storage at New Orleans, re-shipment, with a new set of charges for freight and insurance coastwise, and the interest, for thirty days, incident to its transit to the eastern cities) is about $5.

It cannot be doubted, that a large portion of this cotton would come to the eastern cities, over this line of Tennessee and Virginia works:

1. Because the freight would be as cheap.
2. Because over this line it would reach Liverpool some twenty days sooner than by New Orleans.
3. Because it would, by this route, be 2,500 miles nearer the foreign market.

The tobacco of Tennessee would come over this line—because, in the hot and damp climate of New Orleans and the Gulf, it loses its flavor and incurs an estimated damage of ten per cent.

Flour and corn would, also, find their way to the eastern cities, by this route; because, in the climate of New Orleans, flour suffers a damage of seventy-five cents per barrel; and corn will average twenty-five per cent. less return, than that shipped to foreign markets from the eastern cities.

Bacon, pork, beef, butter and lard, would, also, come upon this line from Tennessee, intended for foreign markets; because they suffer damage, from fifteen to twenty per cent., by way of New Orleans. Thus it may be seen, that the damage on the articles named would very nearly cover the cost of freight from Tennessee to Baltimore.

This line, too, would be open for transportation from January to January; while it is only about three months in the year that the shipment of many of the articles specified would not be a total loss by way of New Orleans. It would also have advantage over the northern routes by rivers and canals, because they are frozen up for several months in the year. These facts would certainly compel the larger portion of those articles specified, intended for distant markets, over this route.

6. ATTAKAPAS, LOUISIANA, RAILROAD.

This road is intended to be run from some suitable point on Grand river (the main branch of the Atchafalaya) to some suitable place on the Mississippi river, between Plaquemine and Lafourche, in order to establish a more direct and expeditious communication between Attakapas and New Orleans.

Taking the route suggested, at eleven miles, the probable cost of construction will be about $70,000; allowing $20,000 more for locomotive, cars and warehouses, at each end, will give $90,000 as the total cost, exclusive of any payment for land. It is believed, that the land granted by the State will fully compensate for any expenditure, for the right of way, through private property. The above estimates are founded on information derived from reliable sources.

PROBABLE EXPENSES.

Probable current expenses for one year,	$12,500
Interest on $60,000, that may be borrowed at 7 per cent. per annum,	4,204
Total,	$16,704

PROBABLE INCOME.

Five thousand passengers (low estimate), @ $1,	$5,000
Five thousand hhds. sugar " @ 50 cts.,	2,500
Five thousand bbls. molasses " @ 15 cts.,	750
Five thousand tons merchandise and produce, @ $1,50,	7,500
Ten thousand cords steamboat wood, @ $1,50	15,000
For carrying the mail,	780
Total,	$31,530
Deduct expenses,	16,704
Leaving a net profit of	$14,826

The completion of this railroad will give a great impulse to trade and intercourse between Attakapas and New Orleans, and parts of Assumption and Terrebonne will be much benefited. Should the Grand river be opened, as designed, a share of business from Opelousas may be expected. It will afford an outlet to several planters of Iberville, who now have to haul their sugar from two to six miles. The opening of Grand river, besides affording a beautiful and safe navigation, will give a better outlet, and relieve the lands on bayou Plaquemine and Gross-Tete, and the left bank of Grand river, from much of the surplus waters. By that route passengers can travel, and the mails may be carried, from Orleans to Franklin, by way of Pattersonville, in eighteen hours, and to New Iberia in twenty-four hours, with ease, and for a less price than is now paid.

7. RAILROAD TO NEW ORLEANS.

We see, by a late Panolian, that the people of Panola county have had a public meeting, in favor of a railroad to New Orleans. It is creditable to their enterprise, and we trust the time will come when the road shall be made. The citizens of De Soto have, also, held a public meeting for this object. A lively interest exists, and there is wanting but a few bold spirits to take this enterprise in hand and carry it out successfully.

8. RAILROADS IN TENNESSEE.

It is pleasant to reflect that, within a few years, the proper spirit has been aroused in Tennessee upon the subject of railroads. It is scarcely necessary for us to say, that there is little evidence of a country's permanent improvement, till the requisite facilities for transports and travel are brought into existence. As we suggested in a previous number of the Naturalist, for soil, climate, mineral resources, water power, and indeed, every natural advantage, Tennessee is the first State amongst her sisters; and, still, she has been slow to bring her resources to light. We congratulate our country, however, that the face of matters is fast changing. There is a settled determination to enter heartily into railroad improvements. We call attention to the roads already in progress and a few important ones contemplated, and which will evidently be constructed in a few years.

1. THE EAST TENNESSEE AND GEORGIA RAILROAD.—In 1838, a road was commenced called, "*The Hiwassie Railroad*," to pass some important sections of East Tennessee and intersect the Georgia railroad at Dalton. It was expected that Georgia would construct the road to the State line, a distance of some fifteen miles; but in this Tennesseeans were mistaken, and after expending

$900,000, in grading, &c.—one-half the stock of the State and the balance subscribed by individuals—the work was well nigh abandoned. In 1848, the "East Tennessee and Georgia Railroad Company," was formed, and the stock of the Hiwassie road was exchanged for the new road. This road is to run from Knoxville, East Tennessee, to Dalton, Ga., and was undertaken by Gen. Duff Green, who recently gave up the entire contract to the company. It is probable, had it not been for the enterprise and energy of Gen. Green, the road would not have been built for many years. The legislature of Tennessee, during its last session, granted the company a loan of $350,000, to complete the work; and the calculation is, to have the road ready for the track from Dalton to Charleston on the Hiwassie river, a distance of forty miles, by the 1st of July, 1850. Dr. J. G. M. Ramsey, of Knoxville, has been appointed agent on the part of the State, and the Hon. A. P. Key, of Athens, has been appointed agent on the part of the company, to make purchases in compliance with the terms of the act. The T rail has been adopted. It is to weigh not less than 100 tons to the mile and about 64 pounds per yard. Mr. B. Prichard, of Massachusetts, is chief engineer. We hail the day when this road shall be completed. It will bring a fertile and delightful country, environed by vast mountain chains, to light, and make east Tennessee what it has ever desired to be—a "Frank land," a free and independent State.

2. **The Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad.**—This road is all under contract, if we are correctly informed, and it is supposed it will be completed in the year 1851. Its history, cost and value, we must leave for future numbers of our work. Another road is in contemplation to intersect the Nashville and Chattanooga road, near the Alabama line, and one to the Ohio river. We shall be astonished if all these structures are not completed in ten years; and we should be more astonished, if Nashville, in the mean time, should not become a great city, and Tennessee one of the most desirable countries on earth.

9. NAVIGATION OF THE TENNESSEE.

The connection of the Tennessee river with the Atlantic, by means of the railroad now just completed, has infused a new and progressive spirit into the people of that State. Already they have nine steamboats navigating the river, transporting the immense productions of its fertile valley; and we perceive, by the following paragraph from the Knoxville Register, that two other boats are now nearly completed, which will swell the number to eleven. The Register says:

"Two New Boats.—We are pleased to learn, that one of the firm of the enterprising house of Williams & Co., of this city, is now at Pittsburgh, superintending the construction of two new, costly and fast-running steamers, for the trade below this place. These boats, we understand, will probably be completed, and ready to leave their stocks for Knoxville, about the first of June. Their construction is such as to adapt them, particularly, to the accommodation of passengers, in which respect most of the boats, heretofore on the river, have been defective."

This is moving forward in the true spirit of an enterprising people, who are ever ready to avail themselves promptly of every advantage within their reach to facilitate commercial intercourse. We predict, for the people of Tennessee, a more rapid progress in improvement than has characterized any southern State. They have stood calmly by and seen other States take the initiative, until satisfied of the practicability and success of the several enterprises; and now, when that success is placed beyond doubt, they enter the list with a noble zeal, worthy of themselves and the great cause in which they have embarked.

10. REVENUES OF LEADING PUBLIC WORKS.

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Ohio canals,	$ 612,302	$ 805,019	$ 785,882	$ 713,173
New York canals,	2,756,106	3,635,381	3,252,212	3,266,226
Pennsylvania canals,	1,196,977	1,295,494	1,587,995	1,633,277
Total,	$4,565,385	$5,735,894	$5,626,089	$5,612,676
New York railroads,	2,315,078	3,166,340	3,724,470	4,289,205
Massachusetts railroads,	3,940,504	5,210,081	5,651,884	6,118,214

between Plaquemine and Lafourche, in order [illegible]
peditious communication between Attakapas and [illegible]

Taking the route suggested, at eleven miles, [illegible]
will be about $70,000; allowing $20,000 [illegible]
houses, at each end, will give $90,000 as the [illegible]
for land. It is believed, that the land granted [illegible]
sate for any expenditure, for the right of way [illegible]
above estimates are founded on information [illegible]

PROBABLE EXPE[illegible]

Probable current expenses for one year,.............
Interest on $60,000, that may be borrowed at 7 p[illegible]

Total,.............

PROBABLE I[illegible]

Five thousand passengers (low estimate), [illegible]
Five thousand hhds. sugar " [illegible]
Five thousand bbls. molasses " [illegible]
Five thousand tons merchandise and produce [illegible]
Ten thousand cords steamboat wood, @ $1 [illegible]
For carrying the mail,.............

Total,.............
Deduct expenses,.............

Leaving a net profit of.............

The completion of this railroad w[illegible]
course between Attakapas and New [illegible]
rebonne will be much benefited. [illegible]
ed, a share of business from Opel[illegible]
let to several planters of Iberville [illegible]
to six miles. The opening of [illegible]
safe navigation, will give a [illegible]
Plaquemine and Gross-Tete, and [illegible]
surplus waters. By that route [illegible]
ried, from Orleans to Franklin, [illegible]
to New Iberia in twenty-four [illegible]
paid.

7. RAILRO[illegible]

We see, by a late Paradium[illegible]
lic meeting, in favor of a [illegible]
enterprise, and we trust the [illegible]
citizens of De Soto have, [illegible]
interest exists, and there is [illegible]
in hand and carry it out [illegible]

8. [illegible]

It is pleasant to [illegible]
aroused in Tennessee [illegible]
us to say, that there [illegible]
the requisite facilities [illegible]
we suggested in a [illegible]
resources, water [illegible]
first State amongst [illegible]
sources to light. [illegible]
ters is fast changing [illegible]
railroad improvement[illegible]
a few important [illegible]
a few years.

1. The East [illegible]
menced called [illegible]
East Tennessee [illegible]
that Georgia [illegible]
fifteen miles [illegible]

627,904
1,863,000
1,341,705
626,313
196,517
582,463
152,517
609,986
310,397
$16,992,551
22,096,227

[illegible] the internal
[illegible], or 10 per cent.
[illegible] proportion was,
[illegible] rates of travel, on

[illegible] present year, drawn up
[illegible] illustrated with several
[illegible] hundred facts in regard to
[illegible] are exceedingly curi-
[illegible] for New Orleans. He as-
[illegible] conditions of cholera in
[illegible]. The whole number of
[illegible] proportion of deaths by pul-
[illegible] the large number who come
[illegible] in any other part of the
[illegible] in New York it is 28 per
[illegible]ductive age, or that between
[illegible] every 10,000. The propor-
[illegible] and Wales 4,028, to every
[illegible], was 55.4 inches—the larg-
[illegible] March, 1.718 inches. January,
[illegible] months. The greatest num-
[illegible] number of deaths in 1849,
[illegible] of the population: or, deduct-
[illegible] deaths, being one in 16.67—the
[illegible]! The picture is by no means

[illegible] fovorable to cholera.

[illegible] giving rise to cholera, whose
[illegible] country, it is some consolation
[illegible] *from our position*. Not-
[illegible], and on a great stream sur-
[illegible] own, there are moral aspects,
[illegible] comforts, that produce an immense
[illegible] happy country from the down
[illegible] difference between that country
[illegible] and fifteenth century, when
[illegible] severity far exceeding that of later
[illegible] scarcely a large city in the Union,
[illegible] *severe* than here, notwithstand-
[illegible] population. The littleness of man
[illegible], by quarantine, the progress of a

pestilence that travels on the wings of the wind; but it has been found that the only stay to its devastation, is in the rigid exercise of those rules intended for our preservation and benefit, and which, at the same time, reward us for obedience to those great laws intended for our guidance. Medical science has done much for its relief; when left to itself, it is almost uniformly fatal; but, with our present knowledge of its preventives, the scourge itself, to the prudent and temperate (except in embarrassed constitutions), is scarcely even to be dreaded. It is some consolation, then, in relation to this disease, which cometh and goeth under laws and conditions so little understood, that each individual carries his safeguard under his own control in the correctness of his personal habits. The liability being individual, the municipal power can only aid by cleanliness and ventilation."

HOW TO PROMOTE PUBLIC HEALTH.

"But there is another still more effectual, which carries with it the incalculable advantage of *removing all the filth of the city*, at the same time that it protects it from undue action of the sun's rays, and that is by a system of *sewerage*. The difference of level between Levee street, and the (late) swamp beyond Broad street, is about eleven feet, the basin and canals of the draining company are seven feet lower, making eighteen feet; or from Roman street, two squares below Claiborne street, to the bottom of said basin, say seven feet; the distance in each case being about a mile, the consequence is, that underground drainage could be made from about Levee street, letting in the Mississippi river at ten to eleven feet below high water mark, by drains constantly open, which would produce a current to Roman street, the distance of about a mile, more than twice as rapid as the Mississippi at high water, and from Roman street to the basin of the draining company, more than three times as rapid, and of course three times as strong—a force amply sufficient to keep itself perfectly clear and remove all the filth and offal of the city.

"We have not been able to procure an estimate of the expense of a few leading covered drains, by which these important results would be obtained; but it is not too much to say, that a perfect system of sewerage and drainage, embracing the city and neighborhood, would be cheap AT ANY PRICE, for they at once remove *all the known causes of disease* under the control of the public; filth of every kind and almost everywhere, and undue moisture! The present system of police is a mere mockery and deception, leaving the public here, and those interested in our city abroad, under the impression that its salubrity is unimprovable."

INFLUENCES OF PUBLIC HEALTH.

"But there is another view of this subject, which can neither be overlooked by the philanthropist, the patriot nor the christian, and we trust it will not seem like 'traveling out of the record' briefly to notice it. It is a curious and pregnant fact, that where there is great insecurity of life, whether from sickness or other causes, there is more or less corruption in morals; the value of life is little estimated; recklessness assumes the place of prudence, and carelessness usurps the seat of sense, not only with regard to this world but the other: this is not only the case with the soldier and the sailor, but in the most sickly regions of the earth, where the annual mortality is from 1 in 2, up to 1 in 10, 20, 30 and so on. The mortality of the most fatal battles, that fill the world with astonishment and produce *immortal renown* to the victor, is not so fatal as the *annual mortality* of some sickly city where but trifling efforts are made to prevent its recurrence. The blessings of our divine religion are here felt in its benign influences, the purity, cleanliness, moderation, temperance and the great moral restrictions it inculcates, enforce observances highly conducive to health. It constitutes one of those remarkable coincidences of the moral and physical laws, which science from time to time points out. Indeed, it may almost be laid down as an axiom, that the duration of life and the observances of the principles of morality and religion go hand in hand: and, it is our belief, that the history of the world will bear us out in these views; nor is it at all extraordinary, for it is only saying that the rules laid down for the regulation of life in Scripture are in accordance with the organic nature of man. The historian of the great plague in London, bears testimony to the frightful immorality, hardness of heart and savage recklessness, which disputed with piety, contrition and repentance, the dominion over men's minds. The history of other plagues and nations further illustrate the position, so undeniable is it, and such is the beautiful harmony that sustains all the works of God. The average life in no country reaches three score years and ten, announced in Scripture as the period for the duration of the life of man. The average age at death, in the northern cities (doubtless owing in a great measure to the large mortality in infantile life), is from nineteen years nine months to twenty years three months; and in some of the cemeteries, where destitute foreigners, from the crowded city of Boston, are buried, it is reduced to 13.49. In the South, where it is so much more favorable to infantile life, the average age is much greater. In Charleston the average age at death is near thirty-six years. In Vera Cruz 24.6, and in the city of Mexico 27.7; while in the city of New Orleans the average age at death, for the last year, was 26.69, and in a series of years, the aggregate of all the cemeteries was 22.63. But to show the different influence of our climate upon the various classes of the population, the following table was constructed at great labor (being all the data it was possible to procure):

Cemeteries.	*Years embraced.*	*Tot. No. deaths.*	*Ratio av. age at death.*	*No. above eighty.*	*No. above one hundred.*	*Gen. av.*
Catholic cemetery,	1841—'4,	442	26 y. 3 m. 1 d.	51	10	22.63
Protestant do.	1841—'9,	1,445	24 9 1	15	1	
Potters' Field, do.	1841—'6,	8,566	23 10 4	33	9	
Cypress Grove, do.	1841—'8,	901	23			
St. Vincent de Paul, do.	1842—'6,	1,152	20 5 14	16	2	
St. Patrick's, do.	1841—'7,	1,287	19 1			
Jews', do.	1847—'9,	70	14 1			

"Of all countries on record, the rural parts of England and Massachusetts are, probably, most favored with respect to infantile life; and yet, in Massachusetts, forty per cent., and in England forty-seven per cent., die while they are going through the process of development, and before they enter upon self-sustaining life, in their sixteenth year. In New Orleans we have not the data to institute an exact comparison at these ages, but very near it; and we find that here only 36.98 per cent. die under twenty. In this city data of all kinds are very defective; we have, nevertheless, been able to construct a chart to show the real value of life here at successive ages, and at different periods of the year. It is too lengthy for this report. We may, however, state that it shows the extremely mild character of the climate at all periods of life under twenty, and above fifty, and during all months of the year, and that the chief fatality occurs from twenty to forty (the ages of the immigrating population), and the period the latter part of summer. Notwithstanding all this, the following statement shows, that we have a larger proportionate population at the productive age, that is, from twenty to fifty, than the most favored parts of the world. Thus, in the United States, there are 3,708, in Louisiana 3,753, in England 4,028, in New Orleans 4,924.*

MORTALITY OF NEW ORLEANS, 1849.

AGGREGATE OF ALL THE AGES KNOWN OF THE MORTALITY OF 1849.

	WHITE.		COLORED.		
Under	*Male.*	*Female.*	*Male.*	*Female.*	TOTAL
1 mo.,...	300	179	74	65	618
1 yr......	248	225	84	57	614
5 yrs.,...	367	336	98	102	903
10 yrs.,...	154	117	36	35	342
20 yrs.,...	255	139	78	58	530
30 yrs.,...	1,352	435	126	78	1.991
40 yrs.,...	1,125	330	87	61	1,603
50 yrs.,...	561	159	54	59	833
60 yrs.,...	222	84	28	48	382
70 yrs.,...	102	37	19	34	192
80 yrs.,...	38	31	13	19	101
90 yrs.,...	8	14	11	15	48
100 yrs.,...	7	4	2	13	20
105 yrs.,...			1		1
110 yrs.,...				1	1
[illegible] yrs.,...				1	1
Unknown,.	813	338	325	206	1,682
Total,........					9,862

PLACE OF BIRTH.

Foreign,	3,569
United States	505
Louisiana,	29
New Orleans,	774
Unknown (including negroes),	4,985

UNKNOWN

As to age,....... 1,682
" disease,....... 645
" country,....... 4,985
" residence, either as to length, or what part of city, etc., so few as to be useless.

BURIALS AT THE CEMETERIES.

Protestant,	371
Catholic,	985
Cypress Grove,	152
Odd Fellows'	5
St. Vincent de Paul,	2,438
St. Patrick's,	1,145
Potters' Field	1,451
Charity Hospital,	2,304
Lafayette	981

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* Dr. Barton is wrong in attaching any importance to this, as a few moments' reflection will satisfy him.—Ed.

NO. OF DEATHS IN HOSPITALS.	
Charity Hospital,	2,745
Maison de Sante,	45
Luzenburg Hospital,	29
Franklin "	43
Circus street "	30
	2,893

AVERAGE AGE AT DEATH.	*Whites.*	*Col'd.*
Cholera,	27.9	25.11
Fevers,	26.7	20.1
Yellow fever,	27.7	

COUNTRY.	*Foreign.*	*U. S.*	*La.*	*N. O.*	*Unk'n.*	*Total.*
Cholera,	1,269	200	12	94	1,609	3,176
Fevers,	290	27	1	16	306	640
Yel. fev.,	580	39	0	2	171	783

2. PHYSICAL CHARACTER OF THE NEGRO.

The question of the human race, whether a *unity* or not, is being now discussed, with great ability, by naturalists all over the world. We may mention among others, Morton, Pritchard, Nott of Mobile, whose contributions have appeared in our Review, and who has lately written an able work upon the subject, Bachman of Charleston, also the author of a late treatise, and Professor Agassiz. This subject has an important bearing just now, in examining the position occupied by the negro, whom philanthropy is seeking to elevate to the highest *status* of humanity. It is something to discover that he is not of common origin with the Caucasian, and this appears to be the better opinion among scientific men.

Upon the table before us is an interesting pamphlet, read before the American Ethnological Society, Nov., 1849, by P. A. Browne, LL. D., in answer to the declaration of Pritchard, that "The covering of the negro's head is hair, properly so termed, and not wool." We extract the conclusions of Mr. Browne, as having some practical weight.

1st. Hair is in shape either cylindrical or oval; but wool is eccentrically elliptical or flat; and the covering of the negro's head is eccentrically elliptical or flat.

2d. The direction of hair is either straight, flowing or curled; but wool is crisped or frizzled, and sometimes spirally twisted; and the covering of the negro's head is crisped or frizzled, and sometimes spirally twisted.

3d. Hair issues out of the epidermis at an acute angle, but wool emerges at a right-angle; and the covering of the negro's head issues out of the epidermis at a right-angle.

4th. The coloring matter of a perfect hair, for example that of the head of the white man, is contained in a central canal, but that of wool is disseminated in the cortex, or in the cortex and intermediate fibers; and the covering of the head of the negro has *no central canal.*

5th. The scales of the cortex of hair are less numerous than those of wool, are smooth, and less pointed, and they embrace the shaft more intimately; and the scales on the filaments of the covering of the negro's head are numerous, rough, pointed, and do not embrace the shaft intimately.

COROLLARY.—Hair will not felt, but wool will; and the covering of the negro's head will felt—has been felted.

For these and other reasons we are "convinced" that the negro has on his head "*wool*, properly so termed," and not *hair*. And since the white man has hair upon his head, and the negro has wool, we have no hesitancy in pronouncing that they *belong to two distinct species.*

M. Flourens, an eminent French physiologist, found four distinct layers between the cuticle and the cutis; the second of which, he says, is a mucous membrane—a *distinct organized body*, underlaying the pigment, and existing in persons of *dark color only.* M. Flourens sought in vain for this membrane between the cutis and outer lamina of the epidermis of a white man; and yet *this* is the seat of the discoloration produced in *his* complexion by exposure to the sun. From these examinations, this distinguished naturalist and anatomist was able to pronounce, definitely, that the discoloration in the skin of the white man is *totally different in kind* from the cause of *blackness in the negro;* he therefore justly concludes, that the *negro and the European are separate species of beings.*

3. MONTHLY COMMERCIAL SUMMARY AND REVIEW.

It would seem to be the case, that, independently of Californian operations, the capital of the country, in all sections of the Union, is accumulating with a rapidity, perhaps, never before witnessed in any country. Several causes conspire to produce this result; the most obvious of which we may enumerate. There are, first, immigration. In the year 1849, over 300,000 souls arrived from Europe, to settle permanently in the country (the number this year promises to be larger and of a better character), and they brought with them an amount of capital not short of $10,000,000, which was expended in transportation and traveling expenses—in the purchase and stocking farms and in the operations of workshops. Thus appropriated, it has, with the savings of domestic industry, been placed in the way of rapid reproduction. The breadth of land annually brought under cultivation is considerable and of a very prolific character; while the means of communication—that is, the instruments by which the rich land and the labor applied to it become available as part of the capital of the country—are annually extended. It is but twenty years since the modern railway was put in operation. In that time 8,000 miles have been completed, in this country, at a cost of $250,000,000. In the same time, 5,000 miles of canals have been built, at a cost of $160,000,000. Also, in the same time, the transportation of the mail has increased from 14,500,000 miles to 32,299,379 miles, exclusive of steamboat and railroad service. It has also been the case, that the coasting and steam tonnage has increased from 508,858 tons to 1,770,376 tons. By recapitulation, the means of transportation have increased as follows:

	1830.		1849.	
Railroads, miles,	....	....	8,000	$250.000.000
Canals, miles,	2,000	$ 60.000,000	7,000	210,000,000
Length of post roads, miles,	105,336	105,336,000	167,703	167,703,000
Mail service,	14,500,000	....	32,299,379	....
Steamers, tons,	54,036	18,912,600	441,524	154,533.400
Sailing vessels, tons,	534,321	16,029,630	1,329,851	39,895,580
Cost,		$200,278,230		$822,131,930

The cost of post roads we have estimated at $100 per mile—whether prices in cash, or in labor of the people, it is cost. But this is the smallest item of the increase. Nearly $450,000,000 have been expended, in cash, in the last twenty years, upon the means of internal transportation necessary to make available the broad lands of the South-west and West and the labor of those who have settled upon them—and, by so doing, thus called into being an amount of capital far greater than itself. The progress of revenues upon the leading works, is seen in the followng table:

REVENUES OF LEADING PUBLIC WORKS.

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Ohio canals,	$ 613,302	$ 806,019	$ 785,882	$ 713,173
New York canals,	2,756,106	3,635,381	3,252,212	3,266,226
Pennsylvania canals,	1,196,977	1,295,494	1,557,995	1,683,277
New York railroads,	2,315,078	3,166,340	3,724,470	4,289,206
Massachusetts railroads,	3,940,504	5,210,081	5,651,884	6,118,214
Philadelphia and Baltimore railroad,	568,555	643,065	638,102	627,904
Reading, etc., railroad,	1,900,115	2,002,945	1,692,555	1,933.590
Baltimore and Ohio railroad,	797,064	1,101,936	1,213.664	1,241,705
Georgia railroad,	490,935	383,863	582,014	626,813
Macon and Western railroad,	128,430	147,768	161,569	198,517
South Carolina railroad,	589,081	718,110	800.073	892,408
Little Miami railroad,	116,052	221,139	280,085	321,396
Michigan Central railroad,	277,478	347,555	373,981	600,986
Wilmington and Roanoke railroad,	317,822	331,480	317,459	310,397
Total canals and railroads,	$15,908,499	$20,010,176	$21,061,945	$22,773,806

The capital expended, in means of transportation, particularly railways, in this country, even although it may be lost to its subscribers or stockholders, is pretty sure to promote accumulations, in other shapes, by making industry and new lands available, to an amount much greater than the cost of the works. In England, the expenditure has been excessive for the country, because the whole was before densely settled—the natural resources well developed and accessible at reasonable cost of transportation. New railroads had not, therefore, the power to reproduce their own cost so rapidly as is done in this country, where the value of land and of the labor bestowed upon it, is much or nothing according to the means of transportation. The value of all surplus productions consists in the facility of transporting them to the places where they are wanted. Coal, at the Pennsylvania mines, is worth $1 00 per ton or less; in New York it is worth from $5 00 to $6 00. Four-fifths of the value of the coal is in transportation. In like manner, labor, which is always in excess in the city, may be promptly and cheaply transported to the place of demand, where the thrifty laborer may receive a better reward for his industry.

The breadth of land that supplies a city with milk, vegetables and other food, is extended, almost indefinitely, as compared with former times: that is to say, the capital employed in feeding cities has increased to almost a limitless extent, by means of railroads. Without these means of communication, one of two things must have happened, viz.: that cities must have ceased to grow beyond a certain point, or that the general business must yield such profits as would enable citizens to pay extravagant prices for food. The means of obtaining food and fuel now presented, are equal to any demand, at moderate prices; and we have cited some few instances of the manner in which capital is increased by communication. This process is now going on, all over the country, with enhanced rapidity, and the time is yet distant when it will cease to produce its effects. Capital is multiplying, as we have said, in a ratio never before witnessed in any country—as well from immigration as from the cause we have slightly indicated. The application of capital now, is not, as in former years of speculation, in banks, the credits of which were directly applied to the consumption of capital—but. through the construction of works, to its rapid reproduction. Hence, the prospect is of a long season of very general prosperity and advancing prices. The breadth of land which can supply not only the seaboard, but export demand for produce, has become very great; and the external business of the country increases as rapidly; and the returns of goods into the country, in payment of the exports, have been very considerable at the North, swelling the federal revenues to an extraordinary figure. To these large importations have been ascribed the low prices which goods have realized at the North; but, it would seem that the true reason is to be found in the successful competion of the southern States, in the production of articles corresponding with eastern and northern goods, without conflicting much with the finer descriptions imported. The prices which, this year, have been obtained for cotton, have put into the hands of the South the means of entering the field of manufacturing. In order to compare the rise in the value of the cotton crop, we shall take the number of bales exported, from the United States, and the average prices, monthly, in New York; these showing, generally, the average value of the whole exports:

COTTON EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, SEPT. 1 TO JULY 1.

	1849.			1850.		
To	*Bales.*	*Prices.*	*Value.*	*Bales.*	*Prices.*	*Value.*
January 1,........	483,793	6¾ @ 7½	$13,570,000	362,235	11 @ 12	$16,662,810
January,..........	179,317	7¼ @ 8	5,469,168	145,572	13 @ 13½	7,716,316
February,........	258,690	7¼ @ 8¼	8,019,360	129,166	12½ @ 13½	6,742,636

March,	360,353	7¼ @ 8	10,810,590	211,729	12¾ @ 13¼	10,904,[illegible]
April,	293,168	7¼ @ 8	8,795,040	159,896	12⅝ @ 13½	8,314,[illegible]
May,	298,491	7¾ @ 8½	9,551,712	126,220	12¾ @ 13¾	6,689,660
June,	243,396	8¼ @ 9¼	8,438,930	176,748	13 @ 13¾	9,367,644
	2,117,210		$64,655,430	1,311,566		$66,397,701
Total, 1848,	1,645,895		51,676,069			

The accuracy of this mode of estimate is tested in the fact, that the exports for 1848 and 1849 are $51,876,069 and $64,655,430, each, for ten months. The official value, for the whole year 1849, is $66,397,701. The value of cotton exported this year, since September 1, exceeds, by nearly $2,000,000, the value of the large crop of 1849, and by $14,500,000 that of 1848. The supply of mills from this source, this year, is quite equal, for the month, that derived from the same source last year, and exceeds, by nearly three millions, that of 1848. It is also to be considered that the stock now in the ports is 404,000, worth 21,412,000, against 289,000 bales, worth $10,115,000. That is to say, there is a value of 11¼ millions more on hand this year than last; and this is equal to cash. Under all these circumstances the southern interests are prosperous. They have obtained more money for much less cotton—say an average of $52 per bale this year, against $30 last year; or, the whole receipts stand as follows:

	Bales.	*Value.*	*Value.*
Sept. 1 to June 30, 1849,	2,648,000	$30	$79,440,000
" 1 " 30, 1850,	1,982,000	52	103,064,000
Decrease,	$666,000	Increase,	$23,624,000

That is to say, for 666,000 bales less cotton, $23,624,000 more money has been obtained. Those large planters, therefore, whose crop was near an average, have had a most prosperous year; and the South, as a whole, has had less expense of bale rope and bagging, freight, transportation, etc., for the same value of sales. This has given large means not only for the purchase of goods, but for the establishment of factories; and this latter fact will exert its influence in another year.

At the present moment, among the producers of cloth in those sections—namely, the northern and middle States, which have hitherto been regarded as the chief seats of manufacturing industry—there appears to be, and doubtless is, something less of that prosperity which, upon an average throughout the whole country, is usually marked. The value of raw material has risen disproportionally to the price of fabrics, and although the demand for the latter is good, the supply is more than equal to it. That is to say, notwithstanding that raw material is very high, and manufacturers complain of inadequate prices, they nevertheless buy and work up a larger quantity of the raw material than ever before, in the face of enhanced importations of rival productions. This is an anomaly which puzzles many; but, if we reflect upon the causes which are in operation to stimulate competition, we arrive at something like a solution. We may reflect that political causes, in Europe, have operated to keep goods cheap in Lancashire, and, by so doing, to promote large exports to this side of the Atlantic, at a moment when three incentives to manufacturing rivalry have acted upon the South and West: there are, first, abundance of capital; second, the influence of the improvements in steam power and machinery, emancipating factory labor from water-power localities; and, lastly, political motives.

The South has abundance of capital, evinced in the fact, that the crop, thus far delivered, has realized $104,000,000 more money than a heavier delivery last year: that is to say, a quantity diminished by one one-fourth, lessened to the same extent the expenses of freight, packing, weighing, &c., while high rates of exchange, drawn against high values, have enabled the South, as a whole, probably, to realize $30,000,000 more money from this crop than from the last. With this means factories have so multiplied, that not short of 175,000 spindles are now in operation in the cotton States, requiring 100,000 bales cotton per annum, and every mail brings advices of some new one going up. This rivalry affects the old established factories, the more that the new factories are all armed with the newest improved machinery, and will produce at probably twenty per cent. better advantage. The competition from this quarter is every way calculated to diminish the old margin between the cost of raw material and the fabrics; and those old eastern concerns, which had reached the minimum margin at which they could work, must shut up shop and give place to more competent operators. The increased demand for goods, arising from growing numbers and wealth, seems to have been supplied almost altogether from our own increased production.

The imports from Great Britain into the United States, in 1830, were 68,577,893 yards of plain and colored cottons. The population was then 12,000,000. In 1840, the importation was 32,073,004 yards, and the population was 17,000,000. In 1849, the import was 75,377,853 yards, and the population is not far from 23,000,000. That is to say, the population, in 1849, was nearly double that of 1830, and the importation of cotton cloths actually less—a larger proportion being exported. Under the supposition that the estimate of 22 yards per head per annum is correct, then the consumption of the United States, this year, will be nearly 506,000,000 yards. This estimate is, however, very small for this country. If we take the returns for three periods, we have results as follow:

	1830	1840	1849
Bales consumed in U. States,	182,140	295,193	518,039
" " South and West,	....	....	110,000
Equal to yards,	218,570,400	354,231,600	753,646,800
Imported, "	48,409,542	27,000,000	57,000,000
Total supply, yards,	266,979,942	381,231,600	810,646,800
Population,	12,142,000	17,183,000	23,000,000
Supply per head, yards,	22¼	22½	35

The estimate of 110,000 bales, consumed by southern and western factories, is that of the New York Price Current, for 1849. The yards imported are the average of the three years preceding the dates. The home production is estimated 400 pounds to the bale, and three yards to the pound; but, in 1830, the bales were not so heavy, which would make the income larger than it appears to be. In the ten years ending with 1840, the supply did not vary much, but the whole quantity required to supply an addition of 5,000,000 of population was produced in the United States. There was no increase in the importation, nor has it been material in the last nine years; but the supply of home production has much exceeded the former average. The annual increase of demand is much larger than in any other country. Last year 300,000 immigrants arrived, and a larger number will come this year. The natural increase of the country is 600,000 per annum, which, with the present immigration, will reach nearly 1,000,000 souls per annum, who rapidly become cotton consumers to the extent of 30,000,000 yards, equal to the product of 60,000 spindles, besides the enhanced proportion per head consequent upon greater general prosperity. If we compare the whole cotton trade of 1830 with that of 1849, we have the following results:

		1830.		1849.
Population,		12,120,000		23,000,000
Imports cotton goods,		$7,962,000		$15,754,841
Exports foreign cotton goods,	$2,189,300		$ 570,500	
" domestic "	1,318,183 =	3,507,483	4,933,000 =	5,503,500
Excess,		$4,454,517		

In the 20 years here embraced, there has been but little progress. If we average the value of the United States goods exported in 1830, at 15 cts., and in 1849, at 10 cts., then 9,227,281 yards were exported at the former period, and, in round numbers, 50,000,000 yards in 1849. The re-export of foreign cotton goods has nearly ceased—thus being supplanted with the American article. The imported value—the imports—in 1830 and 1849, were as follows:

	1830.	1849,
Colored,	$4,356,675	$10.286,894
White,	2,487,804	1,438,635
Hosiery, &c,	387,454	1,315,783
Tamboured,	......	702,631
Yarn, &c.,	172,785	770,509
Nankeens,	228,233	......
Velvets,	......	99,220
Cords, &c.,	......	185,964
All other,	229,375	855,206
Total,	$7,862,326	$15,654,841

The greatest and most remarkable increase is in the importation of prints and hosiery from the Hanse Towns. Thus, in 1830, they sent us $261,015 worth, and, in 1849, $1,463,367—exceeding the amount now received from France of the same articles. The foreign trade now, it appears, is confined almost altogether to the finer articles; while the home production 'of the coarse cloths is such as fully to account for depressed prices: in fact, without a most extraordinary demand for consumption, one-half the makers would have been ruined. In view of these facts, no one can regard an increased duty as any element whatever of a reaction in the trade; on the other hand, it would add a new impulse to that manufacturing mania now so apparent.

Notwithstanding these immense investments in means of transportation, and in the $60,000,000 subscribed to the Mexican war, capital, to judge from the advices, was never more abundant or cheaper in the northern cities, without, it would seem, eliciting any disposition to speculate or to promote any unusual enterprise. Money, "at call," was, in New York, 3½ @ 5 per cent., and good paper done freely at 6 per cent.

4. DEATH OF MR. CALHOUN.

The beautiful address of the Rev. Mr. Butler, over the remains of this great statesman, is worthy of preservation by every lover of his country:

FUNERAL DISCOURSE ON THE DEATH OF MR. CALHOUN.

I have said ye are gods, and all of you are children of the Most High; but ye shall die like men, and fall like one of the princes.—*Ps. lxxxii, v. 6 and 7.*

One of the princes is fallen! A prince in intellect; a prince in his sway over human hearts and minds; a prince in the wealth of his own generous affections, and in the rich revenues of admiring love poured into his heart; a prince in the dignity of his demeanor. This prince has fallen—fallen!

And ye all, his friends and peers, illustrious statesmen, orators and warriors, "I have said ye are gods, and all of you are children of the Most High; *but* ye shall die like men, and fall like [this] one of the princes."

The praises of the honored dead have been, here and elsewhere, fitly spoken. The beautifully blended benignity, dignity, simplicity and purity, of the husband, the father and the friend; the integrity, sagacity and energy, of the statesman; the high-wrought vigor, the compressed intenseness, the direct and rapid logic, of the orator—all these have been vividly portrayed by those who illustrate what they describe. There seems to linger still around this hall echoes of the voices which have so faithfully sketched the life, so happily discriminated the powers, so affectionately eulogized the virtues, of the departed, that the muse of history will note down the words, as the outline of her future lofty narrative, her nice analysis, and her glowing praise.

But the echo of these eulogies dies away. All that was mortal of their honored object lies here, unconscious, in the theater of his glory. "Lord of the lion heart and eagle eye," there he lies—that strong heart still—that bright eye dim!

Another voice claims your ear. The minister of God, standing over the dead, is sent to say, "I said ye are gods, and all of you are children of the Most High; but ye shall die like men, and fall like one of the princes." He is sent to remind you that there are those here, not visible to the eye of sense, who are greater than the greatest—even DEATH, AND DEATH'S LORD AND MASTER!

Death is here. I see him stand over his prostrate victim, and grimly smile, and shake his unsated spear, and bid us all attend this day on him. He is king to-day, and leads us all captive in his train, to swell his triumph and proclaim his power. And there is no visitant that can stand before the soul of man, with such claims on his awed, intent, and teachable attention. When, as on a day and in a scene like this, he holds us in his presence and bids us hear him, who can dare disregard his mandate? O! there is no thought or fact having reference to this brief scene of things, however it come with a port and tone of dignity and power, which does not dwindle into meanness in the presence of that great fact, that great thought, which has entered into the capitol to-day—death! To be made to see that, by a law perfectly inevitable and irresistible, soul and body are soon to separate; that this busy scene of earth is to be suddenly and forever left; that this human soul is to break through the circle of warm, congenial, familiar and kindred sympathies and associations, and to put off all alone into the silent dark—this is the message to us of death. And as this message is spoken to a soul which is conscious of sin, which knows that it has not in itself resources for self-purification and self-sustaining joy and peace, which realizes retribution as an eternal moral law, it comes fraught with the unrest which causes it to be dismissed, or which lodges it in the soul—a visitant whose first coming is gloom, but whose continued presence shall be glory. Then the spirit, peering with intense earnestness into the dark unknown, may in vain question earth of the destiny of the soul beyond the grave, and lift to Heaven the passionate invocation:

"Answer me, burning stars of night,
  Where hath the spirit gone,
Which passed the reach of mortal sight,
  E'en as a breeze hath flown?
And the stars answer him, We roll
  In pomp and power on high,
But of the never-dying soul
  Ask things that cannot die?"

"Things that cannot die!" God can only tell us of the spirit-world. He answers us, by his Son, that death is the child of sin. He tells what is the power of this king of terrors. He shows us "that in Adam all die." He declares to us, that, sinful by nature and by practice, we are condemned to death; that we are unfit for heaven; that we are consigned to wo; that the destiny of the soul, which remains thus condemned and unchanged, is far drearier and more dreadful beyond, than this side the grave. No wonder that men shrink from the thought of death for all his messages are woful and appalling.

But thanks be to God! though death be here, so also is death's Lord and Master. "As in Adam all die, even so in Christ shall all be made alive." That Savior, Christ, assures us that all who repent and forsake their sins, who believe in him and live to him, shall rise to a life glorious and eternal with him and his in heaven. He tells us that if we are his, those sharp shafts which death rattles in our ear to-day, shall but transfix, and but for a season, the garment of our mortality; and that the emancipated spirits of the righteous shall be borne on angel wings to that peaceful paradise, where they shall enjoy perpetual rest and felicity. Then it need not be a voice of gloom which announces to us to-day, "Ye shall die as men, and fall as one of the princes;" for it tells us that the humblest of men may be made equal to the angels, and that earth's princes may become "kings and priests unto God."

In the presence of these simplest, yet grandest truths—with these thoughts of death and the conqueror of death—and, above all, with this splendid trophy of his power, proudly held up to our view by death to-day—I need utter to you no common-place on the vanity of life, the inevitableness of death, and the solemnities of our after-being. Here, and now. on this theme, the silent dead is preaching to you more impressively than could the most eloquent of the living. You feel it now in your inmost hearts, that that great upper range of things with which you are connected as immortals; that moral administration of God which stretches over the infinite of existence; that magnificent system of ordered governments, to whose lower range we now belong; which consists of thrones, dominions, principalities, and powers, which rise

"Orb o'er orb, and height o'er height,"

to the enthroned Supreme; you feel that this, your high relation to the Infinite and Eternal, makes poor and low the most august and imposing scenes and dignities of earth, which flit, like shadows, through your three-score years and ten. O! happy, if the vivid sentiment of the hour shall become the actuating conviction of your life! Happy, if it take its place in the center of the soul and inform all the thoughts, the feelings, and the aims of life! Then shall this lower system of human things be consciously linked to, and become part of, and take glory from, that spiritual sphere, which, all unseen, incloses us, whose actors and heroes are angels and archangels, and all the company of heaven. Then would that be permanently felt by all, which was here and in the other chamber yesterday so eloquently expressed, that "vain are the personal strifes and party contests in which you daily engage, in view of the great account which you may so soon be called on to render;"[*] and that "it is unbecoming and presumptuous in those, who are the tenants of an hour in their earthly abode, to wrestle and struggle together with a violence that would not be justifiable if it were your perpetual home."[†] Then, as we saw to-day, the sister States, by their representatives, linked hand in hand around the bier of one in whose fame they all claim a share, we should feel that we saw you engaged in a sacrament of religious patriotism, whose spontaneous, unpremeditated oath, springing consentient from your hearts and rising unto Heaven, is "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable."

But I must no longer detain you. May we all

"So live, that, when our summons comes to join
The innumerable caravan that moves
To that mysterious realm, when each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of death,
We go not, like the quarry slave at night,
Scourged to our dungeon, but, sustained and soothed
By an unfaltering trust, approach our grave
Like one that wraps the drapery of his couch
About him and lies down to pleasant dreams."

5. TEXAS.

Texas, as Mr. Benton states, covers sixteen degrees of latitude and fourteen of longitude. She extends from 26 to 42 degrees of north latitude, and from 96 to 110 of west longitude; that is to say, from four degrees south of New Orleans to near four degrees north of St. Louis, and from the longitude of western Missouri to the summit of the Rocky Mountains. Her south-east corner is in the mouth of the Rio Grande, a region of perpetual flowers; her north-west corner is near the South Pass in the Rocky Mountains, a region of eternal snow. She has a gulf frontier of near a thousand miles; a river frontier, on the Rio Grande (part disputed), of two thousand miles; an undisputed river frontier of a thousand miles on the Arkansas; about five hundred more on the Red river; nearly another five hundred on the Sabine frontier, and an island frontier of three hundred miles more between the Red river and the Arkansas. She has a circumference of about five thousand miles, and a superficial content of three hundred and fifty thousand square miles. Texas is large enough to make seven States of the first class.

6. TEXAS CLARET.

An excellent claret is now manufactured in Texas, from the Mustang grape. As many as five barrels have been made upon a single plantation. The spontaneous production of this grape, in Texas, exceeds all belief. Thousands of hogsheads of wine, nowise inferior to French claret, could be manufactured, every year, from this hardy native grape.

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[*] Mr. Winthrop's speech in the House of Representatives. [†] Mr. Clay's speech in the Senate.

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

1. THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF LOUISIANA AND NEW ORLEANS.

It has always been considered that the heterogeneous character of our population, both State and city, would, for a very long time, preclude the possibility of any high intellectual advancement among us; and the facts have, for the most part, sustained the theory. Without an efficient system of primary education, reaching through all classes of society, no people, except where its elements are homogeneous, and the influences of families and wealth have grown potent, as in some of the older States, can expect any moral or political elevation. To produce such a system, equiform in its results, there must be common tastes, ideas, sympathies, attachments, and even prejudices; and how can this be the case with those who represent a variety of races, and the remotest extremes of the same race? In no part of the world can the same diversities be found as in Louisiana. At the same board will feast the descendant of the proud Castilian, the adventurous Frenchman, the phlegmatic German, the Puritan, the Cavalier and the Huguenot, whilst all around are spread their mansions and fields, exhibiting, even in agriculture, the diversities of mind The remote Aroostook and the westernmost lakes, the banks of the Connecticut and the Hudson, the granite soil of Massachusetts, wherever northern industry and enterprise and men are the rifest and the densest, pour down upon Louisiana their annual hives to mingle with the rarer emigrants of more southern latitudes, or of Europe, or even with the native inhabitants of the soil. The object is wealth—wealth speediest, wealth greatest—discomfort, toil, labor; away with thought, letters, established forms and society—the summer solstice will find them breathing again the pure air of their native hills, or luxuriating in the ocean breezes of Rockaway. In a few years more, if life has not yielded to the indomitable pursuits of gain, or to a climate ungenial to their nature, the grand object is achieved, and the product of the southern cane or the cotton fields, where the African finds his destiny without complaint, the hoards which speculation and trade have engendered on our busy quays, rise up in tasteful villas or splendid seats, or great granite palaces, where the din of machinery and the sound of busy men make sweet music to cheer the sleepless industry of the North. Thus is it—and who shall blame these men for their native sympathies, and their sighs for the joys and associations of an early home. Is it not a natural and even a commendable sentiment? If their object is wealth, gold—and why else should they stray so far?—should it not rule and govern, and exercise control paramount? The architect of his own fortunes in fame or in riches, must set up the one idol and bow down and worship it. We blame not. In an age where money is excellence, and rank, and all conceivable perfection, and power, we blame not, but join ourselves to the car, as it is rolling on, and unite in the universal shout to all-glorious mammon!

But to come back. We were saying that nothing high could be expected in the literary advancement of a State, circumstanced like Louisiana, for a very long time—and what has been added must suffice for illustration. Our reference to the subject grows out of the report, before us, of our State superintendent of Education, which we hoped to have noticed long ago, and the report of the board of Public Schools in New Orleans.

The State system of public schools, may be said, now, to be fairly in operation—that is to say, fairly in experiment. It is the first system worthy of the name we have had. With the most liberal revenues, and the highest public expectation, the superintendent entered upon his duties. We have no reason to question his faithfulness and devotion. He has presented two ably prepared and elaborate reports, in neither of which is he very sanguine, nor presents very encouraging results. The labor which shall triumph over the disadvantages of the State, a moment since adverted to, and over those equally great ones of wide territory and diffused, scattering population, must be greater than that the worthy superintendent, with all weight of intellect and physique, can support, if it be not of that sort which could convert rocks, themselves, into bread. Nothing, but the most flattering results, and those immediate, can preserve the popularity of a system so expensive, and requiring such excess of taxation. Call this unreasonable, if you please, ill-judged parsimony, improper haste—those who pay the taxes will pronounce for themselves, and, if in a minority now, will eventually be felt. We saw enough at the last session of the legislature, to be sure the reaction has already begun and to feel somewhat fearful of its results. We question, if such an impression continue, if the system can escape, at the next session, the most radical changes, unless it meet with a degree of success our reason and our knowledge teaches to be impossible.

There is more of truth, than many will accord, in those teachings of political science, that institutions and forms are not suited to all men alike—that States and societies have their stages, to which only Procrustean beds can be fitted, and must *work out* their own salvation, and not win it by faith alone. The practical statesman will not quarrel with his tools, but will shape out, from the granite block of a rude or a less advanced society, by the patient adaptation of appropriate means, the elements of a higher and still higher civilization. He will not raise the key too high, lest discord follow, nor attempt to apply, without the most material changes and amendments, to a people, the rules which have been borrowed from others, in many respects naturally unlike, and situated in every respect dissimilarly.

But we furnish a few of the superintendent's statistics: amount of school fund, Dec., 1849, $40,272 03; interest, up to that date, reaching $19,105 84; only thirty-nine out of forty-seven parishes had made returns, and approximations must serve for the rest. Cost for each scholar, taught six and a half months, six dollars and twenty-one cents. The superintendent proposes, that the $478,000, received from Congress, in 1836, or the interest on it, be added to the interest on school fund, and to the mill and capitation tax, which would give seven dollars for the tuition of each child in the State for six months.

Number of school districts in the State,...	521
Whole number of schools in operation up to Sept. 30 1849,..............................	646
Whole number of educable children in the State,...	53,716
Average number of children who attended school up to Sept. 30, 1849,..................	22,927
Number of children who did not attend,..	20,262
Average period of tuition in months and days,......................	6 mos. 13 ds.
Amount apportioned in mill and poll tax up to the 30th of Sept., 1849,	$339,818 74
Am't expended in payment of teachers' salaries,....................	195,389 43
Balance unexpended, or reserved under the 30th and 32d sections of the law,.......................	144,429 31
Am't expended for building, purchasing or renting, school houses,	134,680 60

In New Orleans, the public schools have been growing in favor, although they have not yet led to the establishment of the higher institutions for academic and collegiate education, and any expectation of such institutions, indispensable as they are, must be remote. However, let us not repine, where much is accomplished, that anything still remains. The municipal schools of New Orleans, reflect the highest honor upon their projectors, and upon the people who have so steadfastly supported them amid discouragements so seldom met with in any similar degree. Their library and public lyceum lectures are a great step in advance, and will be reflected upon the rising generation. By the latest report of the present month, we learn the second municipality owns five school houses, and hires eleven; sixty-eight persons, including the superintendent, are employed as teachers, with a total salary of $46,222. Total number of children educated 2,729. (The whole number of children in the city and Lafayette, we believe, at the last account, was 14,248, and the number educated in public schools, 6,716.) Eight new teachers are requested.

The amount required last year for the public schools and appropriated, was $65.406. The amount required this year, is $66,886. Last year the municipality received $17,000 from the State. This year the amount to be received from the State, will be at least $30.000, showing that less will be required from the municipality.

The sum required for the support of the public schools, as now constituted, will, therefore, be................................	$66,136
Printing,............................	750
	$66,886
To be received from the State,...	$30,000
To be appropriated by the municipality,	36,886

2. SUPPLY OF WATER IN CITIES.

NEW ORLEANS.

Now that the mid-summer suns are upon us, and the season when the pestilence is wont to walk in the noon-day, we naturally think of those preventive measures which modern science teaches to be within our control—and the most important of these is an abundant supply of fresh and wholesome water. We have already expressed our conviction of the unhealthiness of the city; and it seems a crying shame, that, on the bank of a river the greatest in the world and which, in every second of time, is hurrying by us, to the ocean, over six million gallons of water, the common wants of the poorer classes should not be supplied, and the running currents, so purifying and cleansing, which might be easily diverted through our streets, are no where seen.

Our worthy Mayor, but the other day, in his annual address, told us:

> "It again becomes my duty to earnestly solicit the attention of your honorable body to the vitally important consideration of a good, cheap and abundant supply of water. I have repeatedly touched upon this subject, but, thus far, without being able to insure those desirable results which involve not only the comfort, cleanliness and safety, of the inhabitants, but, also, the far more important consideration of human life. Without a copious and constant supply of this precious and indispensable element, we may, in vain, adopt hygienic measures, and exert our best efforts for the preservation of the public health; and it is a lamentable reflection, that, while the mightiest river of this continent rolls along our shores, so

many of our citizens are deprived of that which, in other cities less advantageously situated, is poured forth without stint or measure. I conceive that, under no consideration, ought the public good to be sacrificed to the benefit of the few."

The General Council have the control of five thousand shares in the water works, or one-fourth of the whole capital, and it has been proposed, that the city buy out the company and undertake its sole control. It is supposed that $725,000 would suffice for the purchase, in bonds, at one to five years, paying eight per cent. The company has, on deposit, about $160,000; in assets of Commercial Bank, $110,000; in pipes and materials, $10,000, over and above the water works. We have not the last report at hand, but Mr. Graihle estimates that its income, in the hands of the city, would reach $140,000. He also mentions the fact, which shows how little adequate the present water supply must be, that only 4,000, out of 9,500, lots passed by the pipes, are in the receipt of water. A greater economy in price is demanded. Says Mr. Crosman:

"It is a notorious fact, that the water rates are now higher than they have ever been before; and, if this advance, in the price of an element of primary necessity, had been accompanied by a corresponding extension of pipes, so as to secure, to the greater portion of the community, the inestimable blessing of an abundant supply of water, this enhancement in the value might be overlooked, in consideration of the general enlargement of the system. But such, unfortunately, is not the case; and, in the rear wards, I have, of late, frequently been compelled to be the painful witness of destructive fires, the ravages of which might have been confined within a small compass, if the Commercial Bank Water Works had done its duty to the public. I would ask of your honorable body, whether the interests of the institution would not be materially promoted by laying pipes throughout the length and breadth of the city? The first outlay, to be sure, would be large, and might, probably, interfere with declaring a dividend; but it stands to reason that the revenue must soon be so measurably increased, as to far more than cover the original cost of the experiment."

Three years ago, we were presented with an able pamphlet, by Messrs. Mauras & Poree, discussing, very fully, the inadequacy of our water system, and have, ever since, desired to analyze it fully. We the less regret our omission now, that the able hydrographer, Mr. Stein, of Mobile, has promised, before long, a paper for our pages upon the subject of water works in general, and upon the various modes of supply, in the cities of Europe and America. Such an article must possess great interest. Before quitting Messrs. Mauras & Poree now, we will make one extract from their pamphlet:

"An hydraulic establishment, supplying a city, such as New Orleans, with water, for all personal and domestic purposes, can easily support a capital of two millions of dollars. If, to the works actually existing, new works, to the value of one million more, be added, the actual length of the distributing pipes will swell from thirty-three miles to at least one hundred miles, and clear, instead of muddy, water will be distributed. All classes of our population will be supplied at moderate rates. In fine, the city will be in possession of a splendid revenue, easily recoverable, and that will increase every year."

It is said, that, since the splendid Croton works have supplied New York, that city, with one-fourth the inhabitants, consumes as much water as London! This should not, however, be considered a very high compliment, considering what the Edinburgh Review told us, the other day, of that metropolis, and which we extract:

SUPPLY OF WATER IN LONDON.

"In populous districts it is common for eighteen or twenty houses to be built round a court. At one end is a water-cock—the water being turned on three times a week, and sometimes for half an hour on Sundays also. Those who can then attend fill a bucket or butter tub and carry it to their rooms; those who, from any cause, cannot attend at the proper moment, go without water for the next two days.

"Sometimes the cock is out of order, or the landlord has fallen into arrear with the water rent, and the supply been, in consequence, cut off, and twenty families are deprived of all means of cleanliness. The husbands being away at their work, the wives must fetch the water, and they are often physically unable to carry it up stairs. Thence comes *economy* of water; and what that implies Dr. Toynbee tells us. Water, already filthy from having been used to wash clothes, is used over and over again for the same purpose; children are left dirty, greens are put into the pot without being washed, and the smallest possible quantity is used in cooking. Having to attend three children, ill with scrofulous affections of the eyes and [illegible]roat, he found them all rarely washed and in an extremely filthy condition, because the mother, once in respectable circumstances, was so far advanced in pregnancy as to be unable to go up and down stairs. Often, after dressing a patient, he could get no water in the room—sometimes not in the house. What were called clean towels were so offensive from having been washed in dirty water as to be unfit for use. He continually visited houses where the smell was unbearable, but the windows were never opened on account of the still more pestilential effluvium without. Within a district supplied by the New River Company, in the court and yards outside the houses, was a mass of putrid, fermenting filth, and the subsoil was saturated with offensive matter till it could take up no more. In such a locality, the houses, the inmates and every thing around them, became unavoidably 'horribly filthy.'

"*How much Filth they Drink there.*—The rest of London, as we have said, is supplied by them from the Thames within the tideway. The real meaning of such a statement is this: the refuse and dirt from the millions of individuals; the enormous accumulation of waste and dead animal and vegetable matter; the blood and offal of slaughter houses; the outpourings from gas works, dye works, breweries, distilleries, glue works, bone works, tanneries, chemical and other works, and a thousand nameless pollutions, all find their way into the Thames. The mixture is next washed backward and forward by the tide; and, having been thoroughly stirred up and finely comminuted by the unceasing splash of 298 steamboats, is then pumped up for the use of the wealthiest city in the world!

"It was said that fish had deserted the London waters, and that even Dutch eels, when placed in it, gave up their miserable lives. There are 141 public sewers between London and Battersea bridges—and Richmond, Isleworth, Brentford, Mortlake, Chiswick and Hammersmith, furnish 68 more—and the whole of their contents are received into the Thames, and returned by the reflux of the tide.

"*Why the Pestilence Spreads.*—The rate of mortality in the east of London is double that in the west. To persons accustomed to the study of medical statistics, this simple statement would be sufficient; they would, at once, see the depth of misery which it indicates. But, to others, we must place it in a more familiar light. Out of every two persons, who die in the east of London, one perishes from preventible causes. From twenty to thirty thousand of the laboring population of London are killed, every year, by causes, which, if we chose, we might expel by a current of water. Though we do not take these persons out of their houses and murder them, we do the same thing in effect—we neglect them in their poisonous homes, and leave them there to a lingering, but a certain, death.

"Eminent physicians declare that the existing amount of sickness and mortality may be reduced one-half; and, to show that this is no vague exaggeration, we will quote the case of Windmill Court, in Rosemary Lane, described by Mr. Liddle, the medical officer of the Whitechapel Union. It was dirty, undrained, and ill supplied with water. He had to visit it two or three times a day, for fever cases; and, in seven months, attended forty-one new cases of sickness in that one court. It was afterward flagged, drained, and supplied with water, and Mr. Liddle tells the result: 'in the last four or five months, I have had but two cases;' and the rents were so much better paid, that the landlord was thought to have *profited* by the improvements, which he had executed at his own expense. A current of water had, in fact, swept away nineteen-twentieths of the sickness. This is fully corroborated by the experience of Harebrain Court, Cooper's Court, and other places. In Nottingham, in 1832, there were 1,100 cases of cholera, of which 289 were fatal. After the disease had passed off, the town was supplied with water, and other sanitary measures adopted, with such effect, that, when, in 1849, the cholera appeared a second time, there were only eight cases, of which six were fatal. And it appears, that, between the healthy and unhealthy districts of that town, there is a difference of sixty per cent. in the average duration of human life."

3. THE SUGAR CANE.

The existence of a whole volume, in poetry, upon a subject seemingly so common-place, has not, we are inclined to think, been known to a majority of our readers. We confess our own surprise, on finding it one of the hundred volumes of British Poets, printed in 1822, by Whittingham, and having perused it, feel under a strong temptation to extract many of its more interesting passages.

There should, after all, be no surprise, that verse, whose province seems so appropriate to the ideal and the spiritual, should sometimes descend from the clouds to employ itself with the common avocations and every day pursuits of men. Philosophy, whose haughty head has been among the stars, has long been forced into the same service, and, throwing away her stilts, is found plodding in the homely brogan of the peasant in his walks. There is nothing too high and sacred, in ages like these which have come upon men, for the companionship of "matter of fact"—measuring this world with a yard-stick and nicely appreciating its gifts with beam and scale!

But poetry has not only now assumed these humbler tasks. The master hands of Hesiod and Virgil, ages ago, weaved out of exquisite verse the rules of a skillful husbandry, and they have not altogether wanted imitators since. In humbler rank who would forget the inimitable Thomas Tusser, who sung so quaintly of the farm yard; or Joel Barlow, who gave to "Indian corn" and *hoe cake* an immortality of renown?

But to be brief with Mr. Grainger, before incorporating his measures. He was born in 1723, served several years in the army, studied medicine and betook himself to the profession, but with very poor success in a pecuniary point of view. His passion for letters and science was always strong, and among his intimate associates were Johnson, Percy, Reynolds, Glover and Shenstone. Johnson praised, in the highest terms, the exordium of an ode, by him, on Solitude, and Percy described him a good man, of genius and learning. He published several elaborate medical works, and an English version of Tibullus. Failing of success, he removed to St. Christopher's, one of the West Indies, and married the daughter of the Governor. Here, after much experience and study, was written the "Sugar Cane," a subject Mr. Power, of Nevis, had chosen before, but his manuscripts were never printed. Boswell tells some humorous stories of the reading of Grainger's book, by the wits, at Sir Joshua Reynolds's; and Johnson exclaimed, "What could he make of sugar cane? One might as well write the parsley bed, a poem, or the cabbage garden, a poem!" It was reviewed in a complimentary manner, however, by the Doctor, and, also, in the *Critical Review* which Smollett had formerly edited.

It only remains to add—the poem is accommodated entirely to the West India Islands, and discusses very many subjects of general science, such as diseases, climates, materia medica, in addition to the leading one of the sugar cane. The style, though often flat, is sometimes very elevated. It will be curious for the sugar planters of Louisiana, at least, to have some of the experience of this man and of those times, in his pursuits; and the general reader may not find the extracts without interest for him. We shall continue the extracts in our next.

SUGAR SOILS.

The cane will joint, ungenial though the soil.
But wouldst thou see huge casks, in order due,
Roll'd numerous on the bay, all fully fraught,
With strong-grain'd muscovado, silvery gray,
Joy of the planter—and if happy Fate
Permit a choice—avoid the rocky slope,
The clay-cold bottom, and the sandy beach.

MANNERS.

Of composts shall the Muse descend to sing,
Nor soil her heavenly plumes? The sacred Muse
Nought sordid deems but what is base; nought fair,
Unless true virtue stamps it with her seal.
Then, planter, wouldst thou double thine estate,
Never, ah! never, be ashamed to tread
Thy dung heaps, where the refuse of thy mills
With all the ashes, all thy coppers yield.

NEGRO DANCES.

On festal days, or when their work is done,
Permit thy slaves to lead the choral dance,
To the wild bonshaw's melancholy sound.
Responsive to the sound, head, feet and frame,
Move awkwardly harmonious; hand in hand
Now lock'd, the gay troop circularly wheels,
And frisks and capers with intemperate joy.
Halts the vast circle—all clap hands and sing,
While those distinguish'd for their heels and air,
Bound in the center, and fantastic twine.
Meanwhile, some stripling from the choral ring
Trips forth, and, not ungallantly, bestows
On her, who nimblest hath the green sward beat,
And whose flush'd beauties have enthrall'd his soul,
A silver token of his fond applause.
Anon they form in ranks; nor inexpert
A thousand tuneful intricacies weave,
Shaking their sable limbs; and oft a kiss
Steal from their partners, who, with neck reclined
And semblant scorn, resent the ravish'd bliss.
But let not thou the drum their mirth inspire,
Nor vinous spirits: else, to madness fired
(What will not Bacchanalian frenzy dare?),
Fell acts of blood and vengeance they pursue.

Compel by threats, or win by soothing arts,
Thy slaves to wed their fellow slaves at home;
So shall they not their vigorous prime destroy,
By distant journeys, at untimely hours,
When muffled midnight decks her raven hair
With the white plumage of the the prickly vine.

Wouldst thou, from countless ills, preserve thy gang,
To every negro—as the candle-weed
Expands his blossoms to the cloudy sky,
And moist Aquarius melts in daily showers—
A woolly vestment give (this Weltshire weaves),
Warm, to repel chill night's unwholesome dews:
While strong, coarse linen, from the Scotian loom,
Wards off the fevers of the burning day.

4. ETHNOLOGICAL RESEARCHES—IS THE AFRICAN AND CAUCASIAN OF COMMON ORIGIN?

The present era is especially marked by the extraordinary researches in course of prosecution, by scientific men, into the natural history of the human species. These writers have proceeded in the face of those who hold up the scriptural text, interpreted by themselves, as final and conclusive, and launch the anathemas of infidelity and irreverance against every one disposed to examine into the evidences of their faith! The time has passed when the progress of investigation can be interrupted by the spirit which dictated from its haughty tribunal to Copernicus and Galileo, "the world is not round and does not revolve about the sun, and it is *heretical* to assert such dogmas as these."

With all our reverence for the teachings of holy writ and abiding faith in their inspiration, which sustain us in every hour of trial or of suffering, we can never countenance the narrow bigotry of those who, daring to speak under its authority, would prescribe lines for science to pursue, and declare for ever, thus far shalt thou go and no further.

The interests of sound and heaven-inspired theology are identical with those of physical truth. There is but one Author to the physical and the moral universe, and every investigation tending to reconcile the two together, of which they must be capable, is a sacred and noble work. We are willing to try the Bible by the most searching processes of human philosophy and skill, in all of its doctrines and expositions, in the full assurance it will pass, brightened, the fiery ordeal, and remain unshaken while time shall last. Were it otherwise, and the sacred volume incapable of withstanding the shock of scientific discovery, the permanent interests of man would be promoted by its immediate rejection. Mr. Locke (and none will gainsay his piety and devotion) expresses the proposition in other words—If the Bible teach a square and a circle are identical, *faith* would be impossible and absurd!

The formula, which came almost universally to be credited, that all mankind are from one common pair, and all animals from the pairs and septules preserved in the ark, has been, in the progress of modern ethnology, vigorously and, as we believe, unanswerably attacked. In regard to man, it is of the last importance to know the truth. If the whole race have but a common original, then common systems may be applied to all; and the greatest license is given to the "latter day" theorists, who would organize the world upon certain uniform bases, and fit the same institutions and laws to every stage and condition of civilization. If, on the contrary, this assumption be false and groundless, these mad dreamers will at once be refuted, and the world discover that parliament and congress are unsuited to the Hottentot and the African, and the ballot-box and trial by jury not altogether the sort of things to flourish in all their vigor among the snows of Russia or by the shores of the Bosphorus. Our faith in political theories has never exceeded a mustard seed.

Eight years ago, Dr. Nott, of Mobile, published a pamphlet denying the unity doctrine, which fell like a fire-brand in the midst of inflammable material. He was attacked through the Southern Quarterly, by Mr. Curtis of North Carolina, but in two articles in reply, the doctor left to his opponent scarce a foot of ground to stand upon. This discussion, whilst it gave the first impulse to these studies in our country, set Dr. Nott at work so assiduously, that he collected every authority and opinion, and pursued the matter with incredible ardor. Sympathizing in these investigations, we invited him, in January, 1849, to deliver two lectures upon them, from our chair of Political Economy in the University of Louisiana. These lectures, at our suggestion, were published soon afterward, with notes and illustrations, in a volume already noticed in the Review.

Since this period, Mr. Luke Burke has commenced the publication of an Ethnological Magazine, in London, attacking the doctrines of the "*Unitists;*" and, at the late Scientific Convention in Charleston, Prof. Agassiz, in reply to a serious and formal interrogatory, announced that he was entirely convinced they were untenable. The views of this distinguished naturalist are fully set out by him, in an article in a late number of the Christian Examiner, Boston.

The Rev. Dr. Bachman, of Charleston, the co-laborer of Audubon, and a man of splendid attainments, has since come out with a volume, maintaining the *unity* argument with all the force of his erudition. He has been replied to ably, by that distinguished naturalist, Morton, through the Charleston Medical Journal, and we think it will be difficult to make a rejoinder.

It is also hinted that Dr. Horlbrook, of Charleston, will take up the cudgels against the unity theory, through the Southern Quarterly, and that Dr. Nott is now engaged burnishing up his armor anew for the fight. We shall await with interest the developments, and hope to give many of them to our readers.

For the present, we shall conclude with a few extracts from Nott and Morton:

Did the sun burn the negro black?

"We beg leave to fix your attention on this vital point. It is a commonly received error, that the influence of a hot climate is gradually exerted on successive generations, until one species of mankind is completely changed into another: a dark shade is impressed on the first, and transmitted to the second; another shade is added to the third, which is handed down to the fourth; and so on, through successive generations, until the fair German is transformed, by climate, into the black African!

"This idea is *proven to be false*, and is abandoned by the well-informed writers of all parties. A sunburnt cheek is never handed down to succeeding generations. The exposed parts of the body alone are tanned by the sun, and the children of the white-skinned Europeans in New Orleans, Mobile and the West Indies, are *born* as fair as their ancestors, and would remain so, if carried back to a colder climate. The same may be said of other *acquired* characters (except those from want and disease)—they die with the individual, and are no more capable of transmission than a flattened head, mutilated limb or tattooed skin."

Is there equality of the races?

"The unity of the human species has also been stoutly maintained on psychological grounds. Numerous attempts have been made to establish the intellectual equality of the dark races with the white; and the history of the past has been ransacked for examples, but they are nowhere to be found. Can any one call the name of a negro who has ever written a page worthy of being remembered?

"We have historical records sufficiently exact, from the time of Herodotus to the present day, to show that the negro, during his time (two thousand three hundred years), has been a stranger to civilization. We then have the monumental records of Egypt, some two thousand five hundred years beyond Herodotus, to prove that the physical, and, consequently, mental, character of the negroes was the same as at the present day. Lepsius has discovered the negroes on the monuments of the sixth Egyptian dynasty, two thousand eight hundred years before Christ, and they must have existed long before this time.

"Again, we have the striking fact, that no ancient monument of art has been found on the continent of Africa, south of the great Desert of Sahara, the region of the negroes. And, lastly, we have the crowning argument in the present condition of the negro race in every clime and under all circumstances.

"The example in Hayti is certainly a very instructive one. Here we see the black race placed under the most favorable circumstances possible for advancement in civilization, and yet they are utterly incapable of maintaining what has been bequeathed them. They were taught, by the whites, agriculture, the mechanic arts and other useful employments. A large portion of them were taught to read and write. They had a well-organized government, a delightful climate, productive soil, and extensive commerce. Notwithstanding all these advantages, such as no white race ever commenced with, the negroes of Hayti have been steadily relapsing into barbarism; and their downfall has only been retarded by the white blood mingled in the veins of a large portion of them.

"The mulattoes of Hayti, as elsewhere, have always preserved a superiority which the white blood alone could account for, and of which the blacks are so jealous, that they are making constant efforts to exterminate their proud rulers."

Must the Scriptures fall with the Unity doctrine?

The devout, pious and scientific Dr. J. Pye Smith says:

"If the two first inhabitants of Eden were the progenitors, not of all human beings, but only of the races whence sprung the Hebrew family, still it would remain the fact, that *all* were formed by the immediate power of God, and all their circumstances, stated or implied in the Scriptures, would remain the same, as to moral and practical purposes.

"Some difficulties with Scripture history would be taken away—such as the sons of Adam obtaining wives who were their own sisters; Cain's acquiring instruments of husbandry, which must have been supplied by miracle immediately from Heaven, upon the usual suppósition; his apprehensions of summary punishments; his fleeing into another region, of which Josephus so understands the text as to affirm that Cain obtained confederates, and became a plunderer and a robber—implying the existence of a population beyond his own family; and his building a 'city,' a considerable collection of habitations.

"Thus, if, contrary to all reasonable probability, this great question should ever be determined in the way opposite to what we now think the verdict of truth, the highest interests of man will not be affected."

DR. MORTON'S OPINION.

After stating his belief that the diversities of mankind were not acquired, but existed *ab origine*, he proceeds:

"With respect to the origin of the human race by a single pair, I always felt there was a moral objection to it; and I read the sacred text with much more satisfaction since I am convinced that it does not require the interpretation usually put upon it.

"There is, again, a philosophical objection to the propagation of any animals from a single pair, because this incestuous intercourse tends, eventually, to the deterioration and extinction of the races that are subjected to it. I do not believe that the earth ever could have been furnished with animals after this plan, unless a miracle had been wrought at every stage of it. The process of breeding in and in, is extremely difficult and often impossible. Sir John Sebright and others have proved this on a large scale, with respect to domestic animals; and the same fact is equally familiar in this country. Azara states that the natives of Paraguay have found, from experience, that their cattle gradually diminish in size, and lose their fecundity, unless fresh animals of both sexes are introduced, from time to time, from other pastures than their own; and Mr. Alexander Walker, after a laborious examination of this question, declares, that, by this process, 'nearly perfect beings would eventually degenerate.' Here, then, even among our domestic animals, we have a degree of that same difficulty that is proverbial among admitted hybrids. As to man, let us suppose the mulatto offspring of a black man and a white woman, or the reverse, were compelled to marry among themselves, without any access of other individuals of either race, how long do you suppose this mixed breed would last? Not beyond the third or fourth generation.

"I am convinced the more we study the Mosaic history, in connection with natural science, the more shall we be instructed by both. Is our faith shaken because Galileo has shown that the sun does not revolve round the earth, but the earth round the sun? Does it detract from our admiration of creative wisdom, to be told, as geology teaches, that past time is in eternity? Does it lessen our admiration of the past, or our hope in the future, to be told that mankind have existed chiliads of centuries (I quote the words of Dr. Pritchard) upon the earth? or does our religion suffer detriment, because the great Lepsius has deciphered the legends of Memphis, and proved that they date back three thousand five hundred years before Christ? Yet these things are true; and if the pride of man feels humiliated at his past ignorance, let him be thankful that he has yet lived to see so much light."

THE BOSTON CHRISTIAN EXAMINER ON AGASSIZ.

"At a recent scientific convention at Charleston, South Carolina, Professor Agassiz developed, with some minuteness of detail, the theory that the human race is not descended, as is generally supposed, from one parent stock, but has diffused itself from several original centers of creation—the progenitors from each portion of the race having been distinguished by such peculiarities as adapted them to their position, as to soil and climate, and to the part which they were destined to play in the economy of life. He, at the same time, expressed his faith in the sacred records, and his profound reverence, not only for their religious, but their historical contents—maintaining that even they confirm his theory, inasmuch as the story of Cain almost necessarily implies the existence of human beings not of his father's family. We are sorry that this speculation should have been denounced on ostensibly religious grounds. We are not, indeed, prepared to embrace it, yet it seems to us entirely tenable, and consistent even with the highest ground that may be taken as to the credibility, nay, the verbal inspiration, of the Mosaic record. It is the primer, not Moses, that says, dogmatically, that Adam was *the* first man. He may have been, for all that we are told to the contrary, only *a* first man—*one* of the world-fathers. Moses may have designed simply to give, subsequently to his cosmogony, the history of that portion of the race from which his own nation derived their origin."

5. THE MORTALITY OF NEW ORLEANS.

We have been the last to yield assent to the proposition that New Orleans is an *unhealthy city*, very unhealthy, and have done as much, perhaps, as any one in circulating the contrary opinion. Our own experience in health has been so favorable, and we have had, withal, so many predilections for our adopted home, it was difficult to realize the destroyer wasted it at noonday, and was ever employed in sapping its core. The facts are, however, against us, and conviction, melancholy conviction, comes at last to dispel what have proved but fond fancies and vain hopes. Hence forward our duty is plain. As a public journalist, it becomes us to sound the alarum and to arouse the citizens and authorities into action, in averting the evil which is preying upon our vitals. Are our sanitary regulations miserably defective, and are the habits of life which prevail, with a large class of our citizens, suicidal and destructive? Let the people then be informed of it and arrested in their career of death! The climate, alone, will not and cannot account for the great and increasing mortality.

There is hope for us yet, if revolution be begun in earnest; for, when the sanitary commission, in England, first br[illegible] he appalling unhealthiness of [illegible] es were restored to their senses, the government interposed its reform, and, in few years, the city ceased to be a pest house and became comparatively *healthy*.

Hitherto we have groped in the dark, in regard to New Orleans mortality. There were either no published returns, or such as existed were incomplete. No one took the trouble to investigate. All was speculation, dictated by the interests of men, and taking hues as these interests inclined. Latterly, two physicians have begun the patient investigation and have published results the most gloomy and discouraging. The first is Dr. Barton, in his late "Board of Health Report," from which we have extracted in our May and June numbers; the other is Dr. Simonds, in the "Charleston Medical Journal." These gentlemen are, in general, laborious and accurate statisticians, and, if cherishing any prejudices, they are in favor of the city.

We shall draw upon the statistics of Dr. Simonds:

Interments in New Orleans, 1847,...	7,515
" " " 1848,...	7,215
" " " 1849,...	8,945
	23,775

[The Board of Health Report fixes the number, for 1849, at 9,862, including Lafayette, which increases the total to 24,692.] These figures include the cholera and yellow fever epidemics, and show a mortality, on the supposition the population is

100,000, of 1 in 12.57, or 7.95 per cent.;
125,000, of 1 in 15.7, or 6.36 per cent.;
150,000, of 1 in 18.8, or 5.3 per cent.:

or, excluding cholera,

100,000, of 1 in 15, or 6.66 per cent.;
125,000, of 1 in 18.17, or 5.32 per cent.;
150,000, of 1 in 22.5, or 4.54 per cent.

It would not be safe to assume a larger average population, in New Orleans, for the last three or four years, winter and summer, than 110 or 115,000. Drs. Simonds and Barton say 100,000.

The tables, on the calculations of Dr. Simonds, show:

Massachusetts, 1847–'48..........	1.59
Boston, 1830, '45..................	2.22
Charleston, 1822, '48.............	2.49
New York, 1841, '48..............	2.87
England, 12 counties,......... ...	1.93
" 26 cities,...............	2.70
London,.................	2.31 to 2.74
Liverpool,.................	3.15 to 3.53
Manchester,..............	3.31 to 3.65
New Orleans,.....................	6.661

The Massachusetts returns, it is true, have not yet arrived to great perfection; and, however Dr. Simonds's estimates and tables be objected to, the hand writing upon the wall, against New Orleans, is but too palpable and terribly significant.

We say, however Dr. Simonds's tables be objected to (for they are certainly open to criticism, although he has excluded cholera), he has selected three years for the argument—in one of which yellow fever prevailed more frightfully than at any other time in the history of the city, and in another, 1848, it was almost an epidemic—the number of admissions, in hospital, from this and ship fever, being greater than in 1847. Now, the history of the last quarter of a century, shows that yellow fever, *epidemically*, is *not* an annual visitor, or prevailing as such two years in three, or *terribly* one third of the time. Nor is ship fever one of our necessary ills—and the Doctor has included its mortality, which was enormous. Why not exclude this as well as cholera? We admit there is nothing in the argument, that the sick of other places come here to be restored and *die*, since the number is balanced by the broken down constitutions of the city who die *abroad*.

Instead of 1847, '48, '49, selected by Dr. Simonds, let us take 1844, '45,' 46, and use the tables he gives us for these years. The Charity Hospital is, at all times, a correct index of our sanitary state. The admissions for 1844, '45, 46, were 20,026; for 1847, '48, 49, 39,493, or nearly double, with scarcely any increase in population. The deaths for the first period, were 2,131; and for the second, 6,679, or three times as many. Deaths by *epidemics*, first period, none (yellow fever being sporadic then); second period, 2,319. Giving the city a population of 120,000, which may, perhaps, be the average, or is as much so as the large figures assumed by nothern cities, striking out the epidemic of 1847, and making some deductions for ship fever, it would be fair to reduce the gross mortality of 1847, '48, '40, from 19,980 (without cholera) to 16,000, or 1 in 23—4.5 and not 6.66 per cent., which, even then, is a third greater than Liverpool! The yellow fever, for the twenty-three years ending 1845, omitted nine summers, in one instance, without a single case. In the period, ending 1840, twenty-seven years, those of frightful mortality, were only 1837, 1839, 1841 and 1843; and 1847 the worst. We shall recur, from time to time, to the subject.

6. THE GOLD OF CALIFORNIA.

We indulged in our June number, when reviewing the report of Thomas Butler King, some speculation upon the effect of the California gold mines upon the finances of the world, and came to the conclusion, that, for a very long period to come, no danger was to be apprehended of any very sudden or serious disturbance, even upon the calculations of the most enthusiastic writers. Since preparing the paper, we have been gratified to find its views fully sustained, by an able article in the April number of the Southern Review, which has, with great clearness and force, analyzed and illustrated the subject. The writer, however, argues from premises somewhat different, in many particulars, from our own. He quotes an extract from Mr. Gallatin's "Report on Currency and Banking," to the effect that thirteen or fourteen thousand millions of dollars, in addition to the supply required by the increasing demand (a sum equal to two or three times that now existing), must be produced in thirty or forty years, with a corresponding reduction in the cost of production, to produce a revolution in the price of gold and silver, such as was caused by the discovery of America. This revolution, he tells us, was a decline of three-fourths, or 75 per cent. in the value of the metals, or a rise to that extent in the prices of other commodities. The present number of gold finders, in California, is estimated at 8,000, working 100 days in the year; giving these an ounce a day each, $16, the total would be $12,000,000. But this is evidently too low a figure. Taking the number of workers for the next forty years as 20,000, the total, on the same basis, would be $32,000,000 per annum, or, for the whole period, $1,280,000,000; with 100,000 workmen, the gross amount, for forty years, swells to $6,500,000,000, one-half only of the sum required by Mr. Gallatin to depreciate three-fourths the value of the metals. Can we suppose such inexhaustible mines, such successful miners, and in numbers, which in forty years, would give California a population, engaged in all pursuits, of at least five millions of people! None of these seem probable from any thing that experience teaches us, and especially in regard to mining countries. A tenth part of these results seems scarcely conceivable.

The Quarterly, argues that the present state of things will not long subsist in California. There are other resources than gold. Iron abounds in the mountains. Coal has been discovered, and also copper and sulphur, and that most valuable of metals, platinum. Lead ore, of 90 per cent. richness, is smelted at Sonoma, and expensive works are in operation there. Mercury, in the form of cinnabar, exists throughout the entire range of mountains, and is now worked with the highest success and profit. This metal is of vast consequence to the arts and in chemistry. In purifying silver and refining gold, it is extensively used. The Mexicans, when Humboldt visited them, used 1,600,000 pounds annually in their silver mines, importing the most of it from Spain. It has been found in China, in New York, in parts of Europe. The Peruvian mines are now scarcely worked. It has long been worked at Almaden, in Spain, and in the Austrian dominions. The annual yield is now about 2,000,000 pounds; but, the supply being arbitrarily restricted, to keep up the value, and the system of working so bad, that only 10 per cent. of metal is extracted where 85 per cent. exists: the demand already far exceeds it. Silver has long been found in California, and in great richness near San Francisco. The largest specimen of pure silver in the world was obtained there, and, according to Mr. Guilliam, in his travels in Mexico, sold for $5,000.

The progress of the arts, commerce and civilization, has, according to the Quarterly, increased the demand for the precious metals, as media of exchange, and in articles of luxury throughout the world. This increased consumption has not been met by increased supply; but, on the contrary, before the discovery of California, the metals were growing relatively scarce and their value rising. When America was discovered, their quantity, in Europe, was, in coins, $163,000,000; in gross, $300,000,000. In one hundred years, it quadrupled and reached $650,000,000 in coins, and prices advanced nearly five fold. In the next century, though the quantity was more than doubled, the rise of prices was but 40 per cent. This was the result of growing European commerce and industry, and extensive uses in the arts. In the next 109 years, the quantity of coins advanced from $1,485,000,000 to $1,824,000,000, according to Jacobs, and prices went up 30 per cent.; the demand for the metals having been checked by the invention of commercial facilities and the adoption of paper money. In 1830, according to Prof. Tucker, the coinage had been reduced to $1,650,000,000; and the whole supply of the metals in the world Mr. Gallatin then estimated at $4,500,000,000. The consumption of the metals is "in plate, jewelry and ornamental articles, gilding, plating, gold and silver tissues, losses at sea, &c., wear and tear in use, &c. This consumption Mr. Tucker, in 1830, estimated, per annum, as follows:

In jewellery, plate, &c.,.....	$18,000,000
In wear and tear, including losses by sea, &c., ½ per cent. on $1,650,000,000,...	8,250,000
Exported to Asia,...........	7,300,000
	$33,550,000

The mines produced, for twenty years previous to 1830, an average of 21.4 millions, or a total of $428,000,000; whilst the consumption, at $33½ millions, had been $671,000,000, showing a deficit of $243,000,000 to meet demand. Supposing production, in the last nineteen years, to have reached $30,000,000 per annum, and the consumption stationary (by no means probable the last), the deficit, in 1850, in equalizing production and consumption, would reach $314,000,000. That this consumption is rapidly increasing, the Quarterly, very justly, infers from the growing prejudices against bank notes in Europe and this country, and the revolutionary spirit abroad seeking still more to discredit paper securities, to say nothing of the progress of wealth and luxury throughout the world. We dismiss the subject, by acknowledging our great indebtedness to the work before us, and by referring the reader for complete statistics of the precious metals, in all countries and in all times, to an article prepared by us, in the second volume of the Commercial Review, 1846.

7. HOW FAR THE TIDES AFFECT THE MISSISSIPPI.

This is a fruitful subject very often in our courts, when the questions of admiralty jurisdiction are under discussion. The court will hear proof and admit jurisdiction as far as the proof will go. Various points have, at different times, been assumed for the termination of tide waters. The sea is certainly felt at New Orleans, and certainly much above New Orleans, but how far? Professor Forshey, who has given much attention to the eccentricities of the old father of waters, has lately been examined before the legislative committee, and answered in substance, what he had previously attested, under oath, before the District Court. At our request, he has reported his views in the annexed letter.

HOW FAR UP THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI, FROM ITS MOUTH, ARE LUNAR TIDES APPRECIABLE?

J. D. B. De Bow. Esq.—In the absence of very positive evidence, from an adequate number of systematic observations, the following views are submitted:

From various levels, taken by myself and others, the rate of fall in the river's surface, for 400 miles from its debouchure, is deduced with sufficient accuracy for all practical purposes.

The low water line ascends from the gulf level to 2 feet in the first 100 miles, to 6 feet in 200 miles, to 13 feet in 300, and 15 feet to the mouth of Red river.

The high water line ascends 15 feet in the first 100, 31.3 in the first 200, and 53 feet in the first 300 miles from the debouchure.

From some years of careful observation of the river, at 383 miles up, say Vidalia and Natchez, I am satisfied no tides, by influence of the moon, are ever experienced there. From observation of like character, at Carrollton, 109 miles above the mouth, the greatest tides experienced amount to 13 inches (Oct. 1848, for instance), when the water is extremely low, say 2 feet above the gulf level, and about 18 inches above lake Pontchartrain.

The tide in the gulf of Mexico has about 18 inches of range, when not influenced by winds. This 18 inches is reduced to 13 inches by an acclivity of 2 feet, against a current of 1.20 miles per hour, in a distance of 100 miles of channel, not very tortuous.

The next 100 miles has an acclivity of 4 feet, and should, by proportion, reduce the tide of 13 inches to 3 inches, even if the current were the same and the channel as strait. Considering the greater velocity and tortuousness, it would be fair to regard the tide water as limited to the portion of the river, from and below bayou Plaquemine. It is *possible* that it may sometimes be experienced 200 miles from the gulf.

That a lunar tide of 18 inches should be felt 300 miles, up a most sinuous stream, and against an acclivity of 15 feet, seems quite preposterous.

There exists a possibility of a lunar tide in the river, independent of its proximity to the sea. Should this be determined to be true, it will, I think, be new to science. The suggestion is made to my mind by a fluctuation or pulsation in the river, amounting to 2 or 3 inches, perceptible even at high water, but obeying no obvious law. In calm weather, it usually ebbs and flows once in twenty-four hours, in a most eccentric and inscrutable manner. Probably the elongated and sinuous form of the body of water acted upon, when understood, may explain these eccentricities. The tide produced in low water, by gulf influence, has more regularity, and is generally explicable.

The confident opinion expressed by many, especially navigators of the river, that they have witnessed tides at Red river, and above, may find its solution in the following meteorological facts:

"The prevailing wind of summer and autumn is an eastwardly and southwardly wind, meeting the direction of the current and pressing it back, an appreciable amount, during the day, and letting it run off during the night while the breeze is lulled." I think it will be found that these tides have low water in the morning, habitually. If so, they are not lunar tides, and, moreover, have no connection with gulf tides.

Caleb G. Forshey, A. M.,
Civil Engineer, &c.

Carrollton, La., May 7, 1850.

8. THE GREAT DISCOVERIES OF THE AGE.

We have the "philosopher's stone," at last, and can now literally "set the river on fire," too, if the world itself do not eventually share the conflagration. M. Desprezt has made the *diamond* in his laboratory, and Mr. Payne is about to change night into day with electricity and a "pail of water." The great wheels of "revolution" are unceasingly in motion, and, high above all, sits "Progress," waving her airy wand from the dim and shadowy and ever-receding distance! Well said Stephen Montague, "You accumulate machinery; you increase the total of wealth: but what becomes of the laborer you displace? One generation is sacrificed to the next. You diffuse knowledge, and the world seems to grow brighter; but discontent at poverty replaces ignorance happy with its crust. Every improvement, every advancement in civilization, injures some to benefit others, and either cherishes the want of to-day or prepares the revolution of to-morrow."

Away now with your precious diamonds, dug deep down from Golconda mines, and glittering resplendent, gorgeous, and with the wealth of principalities, from the coronet of kings and emperors. Throw away the shining bauble. Monsieur Desprezt will, from a piece of charred chip, vie with your boasted treasure, by the action of solar lenses and galvanic piles. Ye have despised alchemy, but behold the fruits of its offspring at last—necromancy indeed!

Run the line no more at the pole; rest the harpoon and sleep on, ye great leviathans of the deep; and ye lesser leviathans of the land, sottish porkers, your unctious parts may blaze no more in peasants' chambers, on pendant chandeliers, or gild, from sea towers, the mariner's way through the tempest-tossed deep! The elements of fire are scattered through nature, and shall we longer submit to draw them from gross and bestial forms? The quenched flame on the ancient altar, could only be relit by concentered sun light, or by the resistless and darting fires of the convulsed ether. The sparkling dew drop may be converted into a mimic torch, and the elements of FIRE and of WATER, which have been at irreconcilable war since nature began her rounds, are harmonized at last; even, as in the strange and wonderful constitution of man, the poisons which strike dead his physical frame may yet be distilled from the very blood, the life of that physical frame! "How all our wisdom shrinks into dust, compared with that which gives the meanest herb its virtues, and peoples the smallest globules with its appropriate world!"

Complete the discovery, in the terms proposed by Mr. Payne, and who shall foresee the changes in the lives of men and in their industry? Away with your New Castle coal mines and your merchant sail-fleets—the reign of steam is perfect, and its blackened slave dismissed forever!

9. THE CENSUS OF 1850.

We published, in our last volume, a series of papers upon this subject, and are gratified that many of their suggestions have been carried out in the late census bill now being carried into execution. The blanks are much more minute and diversified than at any previous period, and will give an immense volume of invaluable statistics. It becomes every citizen to contribute to this great work, and, if possible, insure its accuracy. The six schedules of the country will expose and clear up all of its elements and functions and operations: population, profession, color, occupation, place of nativity, births, marriages, deaths, paupers, convicts, ignoramuses, deaf, dumb, blind, idiots, lunatics, slaves, fugitives, freemen; products of agriculture, names of owners, agents and managers, acres of land improved and unimproved, cash value of farms and value of farming implements; horses, mules and asses; working oxen, milch cows and other cattle, sheep and swine; value of live stock and animals slaughtered during the year; wheat, beans, peas, buckwheat, barley, potatoes, clover, grass-seed, rye, corn, oats, flax-seed, rice, tobacco, cotton, orchard and garden products, cheese, butter, flax, hops, silk, cocoons, sugar, molasses, hemp; value of home-made manufactures, products of industry, the name of manufacturing corporations, companies and individuals, kinds of manufacturing business, capital invested in real and personal estate, quantity, kind and value of raw material used, including fuel, the kind of motive power, number of hands employed, number and cost of female labor, and the annual quantity, kind and value, of such product; the aggregate valuation of all real and personal estate; state, county, parish, town and road taxes; the number and character of colleges, academies and schools, the amount raised for schools and received by them from public funds, the libraries and their extent, the number, class and circulation, of the periodicals and newspapers, sunday schools, the churches, their names and the number each will accommodate; the cost of labor, the average wages of female domestics, carpenters, day laborers, farm hands, whether with or without board; the average and short crops; and, in short, every thing that in any way relates to the character and political economy of the nation.

The new census will be one tremendous array of invaluable figures, any one of which may disarm a hundred phantoms and put to flight a thousand sophistries. Facts are the only data of all political dialectics, the primary elements of all political science. Such statements as this census will furnish, are the beacons which illuminate the great civil deep and guide the public pilots on their onward course. Society is in a perpetual state of fluctuation. It is a sea of currents and counter currents; and the policy or the measure which may, at one time, be embarked upon with perfect safety and success, will, at another, end in shipwreck and ruin. The statesman, unlike the philosopher whose province is the universal and immutable, has to do with the particular and the transient, the conditional and the contingent. Such investigations and developments, as are involved in this census law, are indispensable to all wise legislation; and the more complete and exact they are, the better for the interests of the country.

10. NEW ORLEANS GAS WORKS.

This great enterprise, under the control of Col. Campbell, continues to enlarge its extent and usefulness. We had, not long since, the pleasure of a visit and examination. The original grounds have been enlarged. There are now five gasometers in active use, and a sixth, perhaps, by this time, finished. This last is of enormous proportions, and will contain 240,000 cubic feet of gas.

"The frame work which surrounds the immense tank on which it is placed, is a beautiful specimen of iron casting, projecting to the height of nearly fifty feet above the ground—the whole put together in the most neat and solid manner, and presenting a highly ornamental appearance. To this frame work the immense gasometer, composed of boiler iron, is attached, and, by means of chains, pullies and weights, rises and falls in the water, in which its lower rim is immersed, according to the quantity of gas which it contains.

"The needful iron castings and gas fixtures are procured from the North, but, with these exceptions, every thing else connected with the works is done by the company—even to the burning of the large quantity of lime required for purifying the gas. In this latter department there has been a great and most obvious improvement, very recently, and the gas now furnished by the company is of an excellent quality, giving a better and clearer light, with a less consumption of it.

"The arrangements for purifying it, first by water and then by lime, are very complete and extensive; as the works are capable of furnishing 300,000 cubic feet of gas every twenty-four hours, though the consumption, particularly at this season of the year, does not require any thing like that supply. The coal used by the company is from Pittsburgh, and is delivered here by contract, and the company have on hand, at present, a stock of 70,000 barrels.

11. THE NASHVILLE CONVENTION AGAIN.

This body has met and adjourned over till the sixth Monday after the session of Congress has closed. We adverted to it in our last, in terms of no high anticipation, and confessed the fact, that Southern people had not gone heartily or generally into it. The assemblage was, however, respectable, and individuals took their seats from nine of the States. In the number were many of the ablest and purest and most distinguished sons of the South. The venerable Cheves was there—the compatriot and rival, forty years ago, of Calhoun and Clay, and who had not left, for a quarter of a century, the shades of private life before. The action of these men was harmonious and moderate, and shamed the cry, which had been raised against them, of disunion. With the sacred charter of the constitution upon their desk, they asked but the privileges of its ægis around them, and those rights which, as men and as citizens, they could only sacrifice by a recreancy to every sacred hereditary trust. The voice of such an assembly, however uttered, cannot but be heard and respected in every part of the nation, where men think and where judgment has not fled to brutish beasts. The address was drawn up by Mr. Rhett, and supports the resolutions. The former was adopted unanimously, by States, but with some dissents among individuals. The latter met with no dissent.

Resolution 1, Affirms the equal rights of the States in the Territories.

Resolution 2, Declares the Wilmot Proviso unconstitutional.

Resolution 3, Urges the substitution of civil for military government in the Territories, and affirms all pre-existing laws of the Territories, hostile to the constitution of the United States, are void on the moment of their conquest or annexation.

4. *Resolved*, That, to protect property existing in the several States of the Union, the people of these States invested the Federal government with the powers of war and negotiation, and of sustaining armies and navies, and prohibited to State authorities the exercise of the same powers. They made no discrimination in the protection to be afforded, or the description of the property to be defended, nor was it allowed to the Federal government to determine what should be held as property. Whatever the States deal with as property, the Federal government is bound to recognize and defend as such. Therefore, it is the sense of this convention, that all acts of the Federal government, which tend to denationalize property of any description recognized in the constitution and laws of the States, or that discriminate in the degree and efficiency of the protection to be afforded to it, or which weaken or destroy the title of any citizen upon American Territories, are plain and palpable violations of the fundamental law under which it exists.

5. *Resolved*, That the slaveholding States cannot, and will not, submit to the enactment, by Congress, of any law imposing onerous conditions or restraints upon the rights of masters to remove with their property into the Territories of the United States, or to any law, making discriminations in favor of the proprietors of other property against them.

6. *Resolved*, That it is the duty of the Federal government, plainly to recognize and firmly to maintain the equal rights of the citizens of the several States in the Territories of the United States, and to repudiate the power to make a discrimination between the proprietors of different species of property in Federal legislation. The fulfillment of this duty, by the Federal government, would greatly tend to restore the peace of the country and to allay the exasperation and excitement which now exist between the different sections of the Union. For, it is the deliberate opinion of this convention, that the tolerance Congress has given to the notion that Federal authority might be employed incidentally and indirectly to subvert or weaken the institutions existing in the States, confessedly beyond Federal jurisdiction and control, is a main cause of the discord which menaces the existence of the Union, and which has well nigh destroyed the efficient action of the Federal government itself.

7. *Resolved*, That the performance of this duty is required by the fundamental law of the Union. The equality of the people, of the several States

composing the Union, cannot be disturbed without disturbing the frame of the American institutions. This principle is violated, in the denial of the citizens of the slaveholding States, of power to enter into the Territories with the property lawfully acquired in the States. The warfare against this right, is a war upon the constitution. The defenders of this right, are defenders of the constitution. Those who deny or impair its exercise, are unfaithful to the constitution, and if disunion follow the destruction of the right, they are the disunionists.

8. *Resolved*, That the performances of its duties, upon the principle we declare, would enable Congress to remove the embarrassments in which the country is now involved. The vacant Territories of the United States, no longer regarded as prizes for sectional rapacity and ambition, would be gradually occupied by inhabitants drawn to them by their interests and feelings. The institutions fitted to them, would be naturally applied by governments formed on American ideas and approved by the deliberate choice of their constituents. The community would be educated and disciplined under a republican administration, in the habits of self-government, and fitted for an association as a State, and to the enjoyment of a place in the Confederacy. A community, so formed and organized, might well claim admission to the Union, and none would dispute the validity of the claim.

9. *Resolved*, That a recognition of this principle would deprive the questions between Texas and the United States of their sectional character, and would leave them for adjustment, without disturbance from sectional prejudices and passions, upon considerations of magnanimity and justice.

10. *Resolved*, That a recognition of this principle would infuse a spirit of conciliation in the discussion and adjustment of all the subjects of sectional dispute, which would afford a guarantee of an early and satisfactory determination.

11. *Resolved*, That, in the event a dominant majority shall refuse to recognize the great constitutional rights we assert, and shall continue to deny the obligations of the Federal government to maintain them, it is the sense of this convention that the Territories should be treated as property, and divided between the sections of the Union, so that the rights of both sections be adequately secured in their respective shares. That we are aware this course is open to grave objections, but we are ready to acquiesce in the adoption of the line of 36° 30′ north latitude, extending to the Pacific ocean, as an extreme concession, upon considerations of what is due to the stability of our institutions.

12. *Resolved*, That, it is the opinion of this convention, this controversy should be ended, either by a recognition of the constitutional rights of the Southern people, or by an equitable partition of the Territories. That the spectacle of a confederacy of States, involved in quarrels over the fruits of a war, in which the American arms were crowned with glory, is humiliating. That the incorporation of the Wilmot Proviso, in the offer of settlement—a proposition which fourteen States regard as disparaging and dishonorable—is degrading to the country. A termination to this controversy by the disruption of the Confederacy, or by the abandonment of the Territories to prevent such a result, would be a climax to the shame which attaches to the controversy, which it is the paramount duty of Congress to avoid.

13. *Resolved*, That this convention will not conclude that Congress will adjourn without making an adjustment of this controversy, and in the condition in which the convention finds the questions before Congress, it does not feel at liberty to discuss the methods suitable for a resistance to measures, not yet adopted, which might involve a dishonor to the southern States.

12. WHAT ALABAMA IS AND MAY BE.

The following letter, from an intelligent source, we insert with great pleasure, though, perhaps, not intended for publication:

GREENSBOROUGH, ALA., June 19th, 1850.

Our State presents a wide and interesting field for the geologist, the political economist, and, in fact, for all the industrial pursuits adapted to the South. Having, within its limits, every geological formation, we have every reason to expect, that, at no distant period, her mineral wealth will be developed to an extent little dreamed of in our present philosophy. Coal, iron and marble, abound to an unlimited extent. We have the geological formations in which all the precious metals abound, and we may, therefore, expect them to be found, to a greater or less degree, at some future day. Her coal formation alone will soon be an inexhaustible source of wealth — being much the furthest south, and nearer to the Mexican gulf, than any other in the United States. Last season, about two hundred flat-bottomed boats descended the Warrior river, freighted with the fuel which will soon put steam navigation far in the ascendant, in all our inland seas, as well as in the Pacific. Some fine quarries of manganese have also been worked with great profit and success, and I have found it superior to the common article of commerce.

In point of inland navigation, Alabama stands unrivaled among all her sister States. Besides the Tennessee—sweeping through its noble valley on our northern borders, which is every day increasing in commercial importance, by the railroads from the Atlantic and from the Gulf, which are reaching out their arms for its commerce—the southern part of the State is intersected, at very convenient distances, by five navigable intercourses, extending their branches, like a tree, from a considerable distance within the bounds of Mississippi, nearly to the confines of Georgia, which, all uniting in a common trunk (the Tombigbee), disembogue into the finest bay on the whole coast of the Gulf of Mexico, not even excepting that of Pensacola. As if to leave no portion of the State without steamboat navigation, the Chattahoochee stretches along her whole south-eastern border; and, on the north-eastern confine, which, from its high features, has no navigable stream, the Georgia railroad skirts along to throw her rich products into the lap of the Atlantic.

With advantages so numerous and so great, the eye of the utopian and philanthropist may rest upon Alabama as one of the most favored portions of our highly-favored country; and when population and capital accumulate—as, from the nature of things, they must—the field for their useful employment will expand, "*pari passu*," beyond what our limited conceptions can, at present, even imagine.

But, besides these advantages, she possesses one, which, in the present manufacturing and mechanical age of the world, is destined to contribute as much to her wealth and prosperity, as her unrivaled soil and climate; and that is her unlimited water power. Casting your eye over the map of the State, you will at once perceive the immense number of tributaries flowing from the great chain of the Cumberland mountains, which separates the northern from the southern part of the State, some of which, as the Coosa, being navigable at a great elevation above the valley of the Alabama, afford, in their descent, enough water power to drive all the cotton mills in the Union. With so fruitful a theme, we could dwell, for a long time, on her future prospects; but we have not leisure to extend them further, at present, and hope you will devote some portion of your valuable work to that purpose. Yours, very truly,

Robert W. Withers.

J. D. B. DeBow, Esq.

13. NOTICES OF BOOKS, REPORTS, Etc.

FENNER'S SOUTHERN MEDICINE.

This is a volume of Reports, emanating from physicians resident in all parts of the South and South-west, and embracing all the subjects of medical statistics, public hygiene, endemics and epidemics, remarkable cases, hospital reports, meteorological tables and charts, medical bibliography, peculiar diseases of negroes, reports of medical societies, etc. The work is unique in its kind, and has been highly recommended by the late national convention of physicians at Cincinnati. It is the first of a series of annual volumes which Dr. Fenner will continue to publish, if sufficiently encouraged. The idea, with him, is entirely a new and original one, and highly creditable to his professional character and enterprise. We know the author to be a pains-taking, laborious, minutely accurate, but, withal, highly enthusiastic and liberal minded, man. The somber shadows of the midnight lamp are familiar to his brow; and, amid every discouragement and darkening prospect, we have seen him ever, and known him, with head erect, looking upward and daring on. In company with Dr. Hester (and they will forgive the anecdote), he gave the start, six or eight years ago, to that valuable work, the New Orleans Medical Journal, when the combined purses of the two would have hardly kept the printer in ink. But times have changed since then. Alack-a-day, the wheel of fortune will turn, and turn, and turn! May Dr. Fenner meet with yet higher success in his new undertaking, and find a liberal and generous support, not only from his own profession, but from the planters and gentlemen who would promote the extension of sound and valuable knowledge. "Throw physic to the dogs" may do very well in poetry, and *fuge medicos et medicinam*, as our worthy preceptor had it; but to this complexion must it come at last—as Hester, whose *latin* always comes so "*pat in*," tells us on his title page, and puts the inverted commas, that we may not take the idea to be original—"*Summum bonum medicinæ, sanitas.*"

ST. LOUIS MERCANTILE LIBRARY.

We have the Report for 1850. There are 30 life members of the society, 211 proprietors, 206 clerks, 142 beneficiaries—total, 589. Receipts, last year, $4 697 94: expended for books, furniture, etc., $4,406 35. During the last twelve months, 1,530 volumes were added to the library. Several lectures were delivered. Officers for 1850:

Hudson E. Bridge, President.
Edmund Bacon, Vice President.
Samuel Stewart, Treasurer.
George Robinson, Corresponding Secretary.
Conrad R. Stinde, Recording Secretary.
William P. Curtis, Librarian.

Directors—C. Haywood, R. McAllister, John Tilden, J. C. Reynolds, R. H. Davis, J. A. Allen, R. Van Nostrand.

CHARLESTON LAW SCHOOL.

Judge Porter, formerly of Alabama, having removed to Charleston, proposes to establish a law school there in November next. The Judge is an able civilian and profound jurist. He is also a gentleman of the highest moral excellence and wide literary attainments. He has written and published a great deal, and is one of the most laborious men in the country. Some years ago, the Alabama University, contemplating a law school, elected him to its charge.

We believe that Charleston is, of all places in the South, the best suited for a flourishing law school. With a healthy climate, the cheapest living, and a bar elevated to the highest possible point, for its ability, courtesy and refined honor, students could nowhere do better, if as well. The law libraries are equal to any in America, and Judge Porter has himself a splendid one. A school at Charleston would keep at home the numerous students who are ever seeking northern institutions, and would attract others from Virginia, both the Carolinas, Georgia, Alabama, and even Mississippi and Florida. We hope to see it organized, and would suggest, as advisable, its connection with the Charleston college.

Judge Porter will also, we learn, take a few private students, for the summer, at his country seat near Rome, Georgia.

EARLY SPIRIT OF THE WEST.

A gentleman of St. Louis, who settled in Kentucky as early as 1806, and was acquainted with the leading western statesmen of that time, has sent us a reply to the papers, published in the Review, on the "Early Spirit of the West," from the pen of Dr. Monette. He complains bitterly of injustice done to the memories of early statesmen, whose descendants are now among the most prominent men in the Mississippi valley.

A DISTINGUISHED FOREIGNER.

We have had the satisfaction and honor, lately, of making the acquaintance, in New Orleans, of Dr. V. de Amarelli, an Italian savant, who has spent the last year in travels through our country, for the purpose of informing himself upon our institutions, manners and progress, with the view of preparing a work on these subjects on returning home.

Dr. Amarelli is one of the most remarkable and distinguished scholars of Europe, and is connected, in one way or another, with almost every literary or scientific association in Italy, France or Germany. The honor of membership has also been conferred upon him by the leading societies of this country, and his diplomas, which we have seen, are almost without number. He has occupied various important chairs in the ancient and modern languages, and literature, and contributed many valuable works upon these subjects, as well as upon Roman and public law, political economy, poetry, &c. He was one of the compilers of the great Latin dictionary published at Naples, and translated Virgil, Fenelon, etc., into the Italian. He has also contributed various papers upon agriculture, archæology, etc., and, in 1845, was a member of the congress of the *Scienseatti Italiani*, at Naples. His travels have extended throughout Europe and far into Asia and Africa. The presence of such a man is welcomed among us, and we shall await the publication of his views with the deepest interest. It is impossible to forget that the very best history of our revolution was written by a countryman of Amarelli's, the distinguished Botta.

BOOKS PUBLISHED BY HARPER & BRO'S.

J. B. STEEL, NEW ORLEANS.

1. Latter Day Pamphlets, No. 3.
2. Abbott's Cyrus the Great.
3. The Maid of Orleans.
4. Ned Allen.
5. Night and Morning—Zanoni.
6. Hume's History of England, IV—VI.

"*Downing Street*" is the title of No. 3, of Mr. Carlyle's quaint political pamphlets. This famous quarter, in which the government offices are located, is unceremoniously invaded, and many of the secrets of its dark and dingy prison houses of "red tape" exposed to vulgar gaze. Veneration seems to be no part of Mr. Carlyle's character, and he cannot be over-awed by all the heaps of "protocols, Syrian treaties, Greek questions, French, Spanish, Egyptian, Ethiopian questions, etc." His ridicule of the stately diplomatic departments of the empire is unsparing. "A well-selected times reporter, ordered to reside in foreign capitals, and keep his eyes open, and, though sparingly, his pen going, would, in reality, be much more effective and a good deal cheaper. Considerably cheaper, in expense of money; and, in expense of falsity and grimacing hypocrisy, incalculably cheaper."

The *History of Cyrus*, is another of the interesting series of Abbott, chiefly intended for the young, and which already includes, "Queen of Scotts," "Elizabeth," "Charles I," "Hannibal," "Maria Antoinette," "Charles II," "Alexander," "Cæsar," "Richard I and III," "Darius," "Xerxes," "William the Conqueror."

The *Maid of Orleans*, a romantic chronicle, by the author of "White Friars," constitutes No. 140 of Harper's select novels.

Ned Allen, or the Past Age, by David Harney, "is full of characteristic points, anecdotes capitally told, shrewd indications of character, and an easy style."

Night and Morning, by Bulwer. We hail the appearance of this new edition, of one of the most popular novels ever published, and one of the few that will be read and re-read for a long time to come.

Hume's England. This edition, by the Harpers, in six volumes, is now complete. The style is adapted to the library, and very convenient. The price is not one-tenth that of the early editions.

A new edition of that most extraordinary work of genius, the finest and the best production of the gifted author, *Zanoni*, was imperatively demanded by its hosts of admirers.

APPLETONS' PUBLICATIONS.

J. B. STEEL.

1. Cicero de Officis.
2. Women in America.
3. Dictionary of Mechanics.

This edition of Cicero's greatest productions, and which deservedly places him at the head of moral writers, is one of a series, from the press of Appletons, intended for schools and general students. The editor is Prof. Thacher, of Yale College, and he has selected his notes from Zumpt and Bonnell. Cæsar's Commentaries and Cicero's Orations have been published in similar style.

Women in America, is from the pen of Maria McIntosh. We have placed the work aside for a more elaborate notice than can be given now, and especially design an analysis of what the author says of women in the South and the West.

Mr. Byrne's *Mechanics and Engineering*, which appears in serial numbers, at the low price of twenty-five cents, meets with the high approval of scientific and practical men throughout the nation. Number 5 includes parts of the letters "B and C," and discusses elaborately, bridges, button machinery, candles, carding engines and cannon. Number 6 completes "C," and includes corn mills, coal, etc.

Cuba and the Cubans, comprising a history of the island of Cuba; its present social, political and domestic condition; also, its relation to

England and the United States—by the author of "Letters from Cuba"—with an appendix, containing important statistics, etc., with several maps. New York, Geo. P. Putnam; New Orleans, J. B Steel. This work has met with ready sale and much favor. It appears at a propitious season. We shall, before long, *in* a detailed view of the island, take occasion to examine it thoroughly, together with all the other histories.

ADDRESSES, &c.

1. GOV. HAMMOND'S COLLEGE ADDRESS.
2. JUDGE MCCALEB'S LYCEUM ADDRESS.
3. DR. BOLING'S VALEDICTORY ADDRESS.
4. LETTERS of "FIAT JUSTICIA."
5. PICKETT'S "ARREST OF BURR."

Governor Hammond appears before us, in this production, in a new and higher character. His letters on slavery, and papers upon the agriculture and mechanics arts of the South, had already won for him a reputation in political economy and science. The address possesses classic merit, and departs essentially from the beaten track. It has been admirably reviewed in the Quarterly. "The pupil of no particular school, the author's aim seems to have been to deal impartially with the merits and defects of all, and to bring together, from all sources, ancient and modern, thoughts calculated to enlarge the mind and elevate the purposes of life, and, at the same time, such as will bear the test of manly, practical common sense."

The address of Judge McCaleb was delivered on the opening of the new *Second Municipality Lyceum*, and maintains the author's reputation as a man of letters and taste. His illustrations are chiefly from ancient history and the Bible, with the usual accompaniments of English and Latin poetry. In one or two places, even the Italian is made tributary. A cardinal defect in the address we regard its length, and it was, perhaps, of too learned a character for the audience and the occasion.

We have had the pleasure of an introduction to Dr. Boling, and previously knew him as the author of several valuable papers in the New Orleans Medical Journal. He was called from Alabama to a professorship in Lexington, Kentucky. His valedictory address, to the graduating class, is very high in its tone and morals, and inculcates lessons it would be well for the whole profession to follow.

"*Fiat Justicia*," is now understood to have been Gov. Poindexter, that veteran politician, who entered Congress, we believe, even before Mr. Clay, and who has passed an eventful life. The letters are addressed to General Taylor, and reason out the slave question, the Wilmot Proviso and California, with the highest ability and the most unanswerable deductions.

Col. Pickett has been for several years engaged upon the history of his native State, *Alabama*, and has published, in pamphlet, several chapters, as specimens of the work. We have, more than once, determined to review these chapters, but regret now to find that we have not done so. Our personal respects and regards for the author have ever been of the highest kind, and we have been pleased with the general style and matter of his publications. The "*Arrest of Burr*," possesses deep interest, from the fact of its intimate association with western and south-western affairs, about the beginning of this century. An earlier chapter, on "De Soto's Wanderings," was reviewed elaborately in the last number of the Review. We shall be the first to hail, with gratulation, the appearance of Col. Pickett's history *complete*.

REPORTS, &c.

1. *New Orleans Levee Railroad*. We thank Mr. Flemming, the engineer, for a copy of his report, etc. The enterprise of running a railroad up and down the six or seven miles of New Orleans levee shipping, is one of obvious propriety and meets with our most hearty commendation. It will be an enormous saving to shippers and to commerce, and we will endeavor to show this at another time. No argument has been alleged in opposition worth a moment's consideration. The question is: Will a company undertake it, under such restrictions as will prevent monopoly and extortion. Mr. Flemming estimates the length of road 32,870 feet; length of track 55,840. Grand total of cost, including engines and cars, $158,561.

2. *Alabama and Tennessee Railroad*. Our friend, Lewis Troost, Esq., will receive thanks for his valuable report, as chief engineer, on the Alabama and Tennessee River Railroad. It reaches us too late for an elaborate notice before the next number of our Review.

3. *Report of Alexander D. Bache, of the Coast Survey, for* 1850. This will be analyzed in our next.

4. *Remarks on Dynamics of Mississippi River*, by Prof. Riddell. Major Barnard has examined it in our present number.

5. *Canal around the Falls of the Ohio*. From Shepard's steam press. It will afford us some statistics hereafter.

6. *The Union, Past and Future*, said to be by Mr. Garnet, of Virginia, will afford us data in a month or two.

7. *Professor Tuomey, on the Geology of Alabama*, a large book, and one we will take great pleasure in analyzing at an early day.

8. *Maury's Sailing Directions*. This is a quarto pamphlet and should be invaluable to navigators, and has reached its second edition. The name of Maury is becoming as distinguished as that of Bowditch.

9. *Mr. Soule's Speeches on the Compromise*. This

able gentleman, who now sheds so much luster upon Louisiana, as well as on the South, has favored us with these pamphlets, for which our thanks are offered. We are also indebted to him for Patent Reports, Executive Reports of the Treasury and War Departments, etc.

LATE PUBLICATIONS.

Messrs. Harper & Brothers, through J. B Steel, New Orleans, have sent us the following:

1. Warburton's Conquest of Canada, 2 vols.
2. Macaulay's History of England, 2 vols.
3. Standish, the Puritan.
4. Life, &c., of Southey.
5. Pride and Irresolution.
6. Antonina, the Fall of Rome.
7. The Daltons, No. 1.
8. Field Book of Revolution.
9. Carlyle's Pamphlets, No. 5.
10. New Monthly Miscellany.

Mr. Warburton was the author of "Hochelaga," a book which created some stir, and is, we believe, the Indian name for Canada. His present work, in two handsome volumes, embraces the history of that province from the earliest times down to the period of the American revolution. We have put them aside for an elaborate review and analysis.

This edition of Macaulay is uniform with the late edition of Hume, by the same publishers. No history has ever before had such an extraordinary run.

The work, *Standish*, is by Eldred Grayson, and is made up with the events of the American revolution. The collection of its materials was first begun in Georgia.

The present number of Southey contains much of his brilliant correspondence with Coleridge, Landon, Walter Scott and others. *Pride and Irresolution* is by the author of the Discipline of Life. *Antonina* is a romance of the fifth century, by Wilkie Collins. A critic says "it is destined to make no little sensation, as one of the most truly eloquent, classical and powerful fictions, that has appeared for a long time." The *Daltons*, by Charles Lever, possesses the usual stirring interest of the author's numerous works. *Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution*, by B. J. Lossing. It will contain 600 engravings on wood, superbly executed, and be published in twenty numbers. The *New Monthly* of Harpers we have only seen—the publishers having not yet sent a copy. It embraces republications from all foreign sources, and will be one of the cheapest and best magazines of the day.

From Stratton & Barnard, Cincinnati:

1. The Traitor, or the Fate of Ambition.
2. Philip Augustus, a novel.
3. Oliver Goldfinch.
4. The Collegians, a novel.

6. Recollections of Antony, by Dumas.
6. Mary of Burgundy, by James.
7. Gentlemen of the Old School, by James.
8. Zanoni, by Bulwer.

"These various works, many of which will be recognized as old favorites by the industrious novel reader, and some of which are standards in English light literature, are from the publishing house of Stratton & Barnard, Cincinnati.

"They are all, or nearly all, stereotyped editions, gotten up and printed here in the West; and, for cleanness of typography, texture of paper and general appearance, are much above the style of the cheap publications of New York houses. We refer to this fact with special gratification, knowing the difficulties under which a western publisher labors, and fully appreciating the indefatigable zeal which has marked the business of the firm from which these editions emanate, against the almost overwhelming opposition of eastern monopolists."

From Appleton, through J. B. Steel:

Dictionary of Mechanics, Engine Work and Engineering, by Oliver Byrne—numbers 5 to 10. These reach as far into "E" as Engines. There will be forty numbers, at twenty-five cents each, and six thousand illustrations. The Appletons publish all the standard works of science.

From H. C. Baird, Philadelphia, through J. B. Steel:

The Dyer and Color-Maker's Companion, with two hundred receipts for making colors, the scouring process, and directions for finishing off goods.

Painter, Gilder and Varnisher's Companion, with all rules relating to painting, gilding, varnishing and glass staining; the diseases of painters and their remedies.

From Gould, Kendall & Lincoln, Boston:

The Earth and man, by Arnold Guyot, translated by Prof. Felton, of Harvard. An elaborate review hereafter.

From Lea & Blanchard, Philadelphia:

Physical Geography, by Mary Somerville. An elaborate review hereafter.

Phillips, Sampson & Co., Boston, have published *Milman's Gibbon's Rome*, vol. vi; *Shakspeare's Richard III; Carlyle's Pamphlets*, No. vi; *Emerson's Representative Men, Life and Religion of Mohammed, Noble Deeds of Women, European Agriculture and Rural Economy; Coleman's Letters on European Life; Hume's England; Macaulay's England; Lamartine's French Revolution*, &c. We shall notice more at length, as the works come to hand.

From Leonard Scott & Co., New York:

Blackwood, for May, contains Free Trade Finances, Greece again, Modern Argonauts, Peninsular Medal, German Popular Prophecies, History of a Regiment in Russian Campaign, Allison's Political Essays, Christopher under Canvas, Penitent Free Trader, &c.

Farmer's Guide to Scientific and Practical Agriculture, by Henry Stephens. We beg the publishers to send us numbers 1 and 2 and the following after 3. It will reach twenty-two numbers of sixty-four pages each, twenty steel engravings and six hundred wood cuts—twenty-five cents per number.

From E. Shepard, Cincinnati:

The Universaliad, a poem, in twelve cantos, by Arthur Crihfield. The age of doggerel has, perhaps, never before reached its acme. Two hundred mortal pages of such as this:

> "Oh that I had some one to brace up this matter;
> To prove from the Bible that faith 's of no use!"

Yet the author anticipates the sale of forty to fifty thousand copies. There may be sense it it, but the rhyme—good heavens! However, there is a steel engraving of the writer, whose head is most intellectually cast, and several lectures on Universalism, ably enough written, at the end of the book. One thing we will praise, and that is the typography and artist merit of the work. Mr. Shepard, whom we know well and highly respect, has produced a very handsome volume. As we have often employed him in our service, our judgment must be received in saying he is one of the most faithful, efficient and reliable printers, and deserves to be encouraged with any amount of work, which he will do with fidelity and economy.

From Phillips, Sampson & Co., Boston:

Carlyle's Latter-Day Pamphlets. 1, The Present Time; 2, Model Prisons; 3, Downing Street; 4, New Downing Street; 5, Stump Orator; 6, Parliaments. This is a very beautiful edition.

Origin of the Material Universe, 83 pages. This is another theory, and the author says, if it be deemed not visionary, some part, at least, will lead to *investigations*, etc.

Atheism among the People, by Lamartine. 71 pages. Translated by Messrs. Hale and Le Baron. It is one of the most eloquent of the author's productions.

From Dewitt & Davenport, New York:

Money-Penny, or the Heart of the World: a romance of the present day, embracing Adventures of a Country Gentleman in New York, the Indian Girl, Seamstress and Poet, Cheerful News-boy, Sharper and his Confederates, Young Dandy and Woman of Fashion. By Cornelius Mathews.

The Miner's Daughters, a Tale of the Peak, from "Household Words:" by Charles Dickens.

Lizzie Leigh, a domestic tale, also from "Household Words."

Three Strong Men, by Alexander Dumas, translated by Fayette Robinson.

Jenny Lind, by C. G. Foster, author of "New York by Gas Light."

New York by Gas Light, by C. G. Foster, author of "New York in Slices."

From Derby & Co., Cincinnati:

Wah-To-Yah and the Taos Trail, or Prairie Travel and Scalp Dances, with a Look at Los Rancheros from Muleback, and the Rocky Mountain Camp Fire: by Lewis H. Garrard.

From Dutton & Wentworth, Boston:

Oration, by Robert Rantoril, jun., and Account of the Union Celebration at Concord. We are obliged to Mr. Rantoril for a copy of this valuable historical document, which we should like to analyze.

AN INDUSTRIAL CONVENTION IN NEW ORLEANS.

We suggest, for the consideration of all citizens, well-wishers to the Southern and Western States, a convention, to be held some time next spring, in New Orleans, for the purpose of general co-operation in extending the *manufacturing system* of this wide region. There should be a unity of action to secure the highest results, and our city presents many advantages for a general meeting of the kind. The proposition has been favorably received by many gentlemen with whom we have conversed.

The South has already had commercial conventions, railroad conventions, slavery conventions—but a convention for the promotion of manufactures, seems, as yet, unthought of, though, we believe, it would be attended with more practical results than any other. In our next we shall treat the subject fully, and meanwhile request the southern and western press to take up and advocate it, should it meet their favor.

TO SUBSCRIBERS.

We beg, from all sources, immediate remittances; and, in return, guarantee continued improvements in the work. Who pays quickly, pays doubly. The expenses of the work are increased two fold, and our reliance is upon the liberality and public spirit of subscribers. Remit by mail, and all remittances will be acknowledged on the cover.

The services of those who send us new subscribers, will also be remembered long and gratefully.

We are willing to allow fair commissions to respectable young men, who will undertake to canvass any particular State, for subscribers; and letters upon this subject, *post paid*, with references, will meet with prompt attention.

We hope, before long, to secure European and northern correspondents, in addition to many able collaborators.

DE BOW'S

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SEPTEMBER, 1850.

VOL. IX, O. S. . . . 2d SERIES, VOL. III, No. 3—3d SERIES, VOL. I, No. 3.

ART. I.—SOME THOUGHTS ON POLITICAL ECONOMY AND GOVERNMENT.

SOURCES OF PUBLIC WEALTH.

[What is here offered, is but a few abstract reasonings, which have lead us where they would. If the reader "like them not," they will do him no harm; and he is assured the subject is now disposed of by us once for all.]

Of the two sciences, political economy and government (if, in their still crude and imperfect state, the term science be strictly applicable to either), it may be said, generally, the aim of the one is to direct the action and control the excesses of the other, in all those points in which the *public wealth* is involved. This, though it be far from the whole mission of political economy, is yet the most important part of that mission.

The public wealth is an essential element of that public welfare, with which all governments are charged. It comprises everything which relates to the physical well-being of a people; and, as this physical well-being is at the bottom of all social and moral progress—all advances in letters, arts, sciences and civilization—the promotion of public wealth may, indeed, in a liberal and enlarged sense, be considered the whole duty of government. Political economy comes, then, to be considered coextensive with legislation, and sound law is necessarily based upon its principles.

If political economy, like some of the exact sciences, had attained perfection, which is far from being the case in its present stage of infancy, and all its rules and principles were susceptible of demonstration, we should have no more of that multiplicity of legislation, which results from the continued enaction and repeal of laws, unless, as is too apt to be the case, governments should be administered by the ignorant, and statesmen, miscalled, prefer to pander to popular prejudices or court its acclamations, than carry out the great principles which are founded in truth and reason.

That this last supposition is not improbable, may be inferred from what is every day seen, even in the most enlightened governments: for it will not surely be denied, that there are some, and we believe a great many, settled principles, in political economy, as demonstrable as any moral truths can be, of which ignorance is frequently betrayed in high quarters, and which are openly violated under one pretext or another, or with seeming unconsciousness.

That the law-givers, or law-makers of the world, whether by the divine right which *made* kings and despots, or the diviner right of representatives of the people, have in reality, and in most instances, acted from the best knowledge within their reach, with sincerity and with honest intentions toward those whom they were called upon to govern, need not for our purposes be denied. No sufficient reason for an opposite course can be alleged. Even the most base and heartless tyrant could not but perceive, unless blinded by the worst madness, that his own state and splendor is in some degree dependent upon the extent and prosperity of his realm and his subjects. A systematic warfare against all industry, enterprise and progress, was never, perhaps, the *object* of the most crushing tyranny the world ever knew.

History is not, indeed, without instances, in all ages, where such systematic warfare appears to have been waged against industry and enterprise, by even the best class of governments. A careful examination of the existing powers of the world would, perhaps, present us many such instances of warfare, more or less considerable, notwithstanding all the progress which has been made in civil liberty, science and civilization. Radical differences in the principles and forms of government will not explain these phenomena: they are wholly independent of them. To conceive a republic more unfavorable to enterprise even than a despotism is not difficult, since, if forms of government be much, they are not everything. Though we may not admit the best administered government is best, merely theoretic perfection should have no favor.

To a misapprehension of the true purposes of government, and of the mode of promoting the real welfare of the State, may be traced the greater portion of the evils which society has suffered. Men have not known the truth, or the whole truth. They have legislated without light, blundering on from age to age—the precedent of the sire s being sufficient for the sons. Nothing so absurd as not to have had an advocate. The more conscientious, the more dangerous and inveterate the error!

The most difficult and perplexing of all sciences is, without doubt, that of government. It requires almost prescience, in many cases, to see the bearing and results of political measures; in all cases it requires more than ordinary apprehension. We are told that the Romans had laws teaching how to make laws; but this could not have applied to other than the mere forms. The acquaintance and study of facts and results, as they are worked out in the movements and machinery of society, from the masses up, under all circumstances, most propitious or adverse, in all times, in all countries, are more indispensable conditions of the statesman, than all the logic and metaphysics of the schools, all the philosophy of the closet.

Experience, which is so excellent a teacher in regard to almost everything in which we are interested, gives not so clear and unmistakable a light in this particular. There are so many counteracting influences and causes at work, so many undefined operations in society, that it is not singular the real sources of evil are so often overlooked and the wrong ones imputed. The results sometimes are very distant. The hand which strikes the blow, the blow itself, may be secret, and yet the mischief be as sure and as irreparable. This is akin to what Bishop Butler remarks of the moral government of the world: the punishment of an invasion of a law of nature, follows not always so immediate as to be traced to that invasion.*

The study of the true sources of national prosperity, is almost altogether of modern date. It is later even, by far, than the philosophical and metaphysical regeneration effected by Bacon and Locke. A century has not passed since the first impulse was given to these investigations, by the publication of a work, which has deservedly immortalized the name of Adam Smith.

Without defining what is called political economy, or entering into any disquisitions upon it, this may be said without controversy: that, in addressing its teachings to the rulers and legislators of the world, what they ought not to do, is a far more important lesson, than what they ought. The "masterly inactivity," proclaimed by one of our statesman, is a safer general rule than constant intervention. There is never any danger that legislators will not do enough in the enactment of every character of laws, and concerning every character of subject. Their vanity of place, the importance which they fancy belongs to a law-giver, whatever the length of his ears, are motives strong enough for this. Perhaps, in the very worst governed society upon earth, there are good laws enough in force to ensure the highest degree of liberty and prosperity, were they not clogged by others that are absurd and inimical! A repeal of all these worst laws, however numerous, would not necessarily call for the enactment of better ones in their place. Enough of such laws may already exist.

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* See the "Analogy."

"*Thou shalt not*," then, is a far more frequent and useful injunction, in the decalogue of political science, than "*thou shalt;*" and in teaching the people, the *governed* (if they can be supposed to require instruction in what is for their best interest and permanent welfare, in all their various avocations of life, as they certainly may be), a field is opened which exhausts the whole subject of political economy.

That that is "the best government which governs least," and they the happiest people who have delegated the fewest powers to be exercised by others, may in general terms be affirmed. To say that the world has been too much governed, is to say that it has been badly governed—since each additional restraint, beyond what is absolutely necessary, constitutes an additional link in the chain of oppression. Simplicity and precision are the perfection of all laws. Call it democracy or despotism, that government is a tyranny which delights in weaving the legislative web to entangle its subjects. The most powerful, as the Greek philosopher held, are sure to break the web—the weaker only struggle in its folds.

In the promotion of public wealth or the public welfare, all that in reality is required from government, is such a system of legislation as will effectually protect the citizens from wrongs and outrages upon their persons or property, abroad or at home.* The conservation of life, liberty and property is everything. We say *conservation*, which supposes the citizen first to be in possession. Government has nothing to give. Every act of giving, on its part, is a mere act of transfer from one to another, leading often to partiality, always to injustice. The subjects of a government are all upon an equal footing, a condition at war with the idea that *special* benefits may be conferred upon any. If government cannot give, it cannot take away, except for offenses which are *previously* determined.

Ignorant, indolent or bad men, will always be clamorous for support from the public crib, since it is congenial to them that others should be taxed for their support. There are more paupers in every country than can be found upon the poor list or in the work houses. Were the truth known, the latter class might be found far less detrimental to public prosperity, though both equally prey upon their fellows. These reap where they have not sown. Like Ishmael of old, their hands are turned against all men—and would to God the hands of all men were turned against them.

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*Mr. Hume says, "The whole paraphernalia of commons, lords, army, navy, judges, kind, is for the just end of bringing twelve honest men into the jury box."

Were not Hercules's stout shoulders near at hand, it would be seen how well at a pinch the wagoner could help himself. Men never mistake, in private affairs, very widely, or for any time, their true interests, *if left to themselves*. They may safely be intrusted with their own affairs. In the conflict of various and opposing interests, they become accute enough. A perfect immunity to act as it best pleases them in all matters, so that wrong be not done to others or to the community, is the golden rule of liberty as of economy!

But then, as in physic, from ignorance of the nature of the malady which afflicts him, the patient will never think himself likely to do well, unless learned prescriptions are administered. The doctor finds it to his policy to gratify the caprice by applications which are innocent of all effect. In this, he is more likely to succeed than the political charlatan in the same circumstances, who has not at hand so many innocent appliances; yet, something he must do, and that speedily. In the revolutions of fortune's wheel, thousands and thousands are at the bottom. They have been left there by their indolence, by their profligacy, by their vices, or, it may be, by inexplicable fate; no matter, they are there. The more successful, come soon to be regarded with envy and with hatred. Even virtuous success gives no pleasure, and is a standing reproach to adversity. Shall we wonder that these tens of thousands raise the cry of *oppression*, that they have hearers ever ready to make capital in their advocacy, and that wise and prudent men find it necessary to make some show of assistance, when they often know such assistance, in reality, out of their power. Whomsoever, says an old philosopher, that goeth about to persuade men they are not so well governed as they might be, will not want for ready and attentive listeners. It is easier to attribute the misery which is suffered to the government, than to the fault of the sufferers, though government, in truth, have nothing to do with it. It is much more convenient to look for relief from this quarter, than from the man's own exertions. Hence is it, there must be a *law* of some sort or another—and a new law is thereupon made. Most of the agrarianism and Socialism and Fourierism of the world has its origin in this discontent with the *natural state of things*. It is more complimentary to our pride to be governed by our own laws and systems, than by those which are merely of nature.

It is natural, and, if natural, proper—though we may not see the reason, that poverty, and want, and disease, and misery, should be the next door neighbor of wealth and unbounded prosperity. The towers of the palace cast their shadows down upon the roofless hovel, as naturally as the mountains do upon the neighboring hills. Yet that nobleman has not oppressed that beggar. He may, indeed, be liberal, and generous, and just, and mourn over the misery all the wealth in the world could not relieve. Nor is the beggar a victim of society and its laws. Without that society, or those laws, he had not existed—he could not exist with the same security—his fathers before him had not prospered (for generations of misery in the same household is scarcely a supposable case), and his children would have no hope. Exclaim against nature, that she has sent you in the world half finished, maimed, diseased, imbecile, an idiot—that you was born under the frozen serpent of the North, and must struggle against tumbling icebergs, or in the death-dealing breath of torrid suns: but limit not your complaints to these. In evincing her partiality in these respects, has she proclaimed an impartiality in every other? Is it not equally an outrage upon your rights, your equality, that your neighbor is taller, or stouter, better favored, more intellectual—or that he has broader acres, greater possessions and more comforts? All the governments in the world could not prevent these distinctions. The worst government only would attempt it—for, in the effort, how much injustice and wrong must be done to those who, to say the least of it, have as much right to their possessions, however earned, as you have to take them away. The remedy is within yourself. It is for you to apply it. Be industrious, be frugal, be circumspect; if these remove not the evil, you have a claim upon the *benevolence*, not the *justice*, of your fellows. Sue, but not demand. If this benvolence fail, you are simply another victim of that inexplicable, yet, as we ought to believe, wise Providence, which strikes down without reason or explanation, and teaches the utter nothingness of man by her frequent indifference to his fate.*

Nor let us be charged with indifference to the miseries of poverty and destitution, which in all countries afflict society, though in different degrees. The poor must be fed, the miserable must be relieved, or humanity ceases to perform her noble mission. Send them not to government—call not for poor laws and public work houses. We are willing to leave man in the hands of his fellow man. The Samaritan will pass by. The fallen brother will be taken to the bosom. O, we have faith in humanity—it is a gentle, sylvan stream, which flows undeviating in its course, refreshing the thorniest places. It has a universal language. "I am a man," is an appeal which is heard in the deserts of Africa, in the wilds of Siberia, and respected. Man ceases to be the enemy to his fellow man, when that fellow has fallen. "Noble spirits war not with the dead." Private charity can relieve all the sufferings that public charity can, and more. Its operations are more effectual, for they are nearer the subject; and, when properly organized, are more discriminating—securing higher comfort at the same cost, with enhanced satisfaction to the donors, and less of that shame which is inseparable from a sense of dependence. A proud spirit might die, rather than take to the public work house—though well administered relief from friends would not be refused. A base spirit could not so well deceive individuals as the public, in regard to alleged wants and sufferings. Leave these things to society and they will be attended. We shall have benevolent associations multiplying, kindness and generosity promoted, as well as enterprise and industry. In regard to these associations, how immensely superior is the present to any subsequent period. Scarcely a man but what is connected with some of them, and contributes to their support. Under whatever name they appear, they are all noble, and proclaim the great laws of sympathy which pervades the universe. When government comes to be a *benefactor*, it is too often a robber—dispensing in charity, and for the relief of conscience, its ill-gotten gains.

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* See the admirable satire in Juvenal, upon man's complaints about fortune—the sixth, we believe.

Having thus taken the extreme case, in which, if any, government might be held bound to legislate for the benefit of particular classes, and proved, that not only does no such power exist, but that its exercise, if existing, would be impolitic, less effectual, more costly, than individuals and society left to themselves would find it, little difficulty can be found in all those other cases, and they are innumerable, where men are clamorous to have their peculiar conditions benefited by *special* laws, their wealth increased, or their plans and enterprises promoted.

And, to say the truth, these latter calls, time immemorial, have been more frequent than the former, and, from their nature and the character of the persons making them, more likely to be heard. The agriculturist, the manufacturer, the merchant, have left their farms, their work shops and their counting houses, and essayed the far readier mode of acquiring wealth to be had from Westminster Hall or on the floors of Congress. We shall take occasion to enumerate some of their labors and the results, in a general sketch of the interference of governments with industry, in all countries, from the earliest times to the present. From these, more instruction can be derived than from any philosophical disquisition. We shall then see the true secret of national wealth and prosperity, and in what it consists.

Agriculture, being prior, in time, to the other arts and pursuits, and, as it were, the mother of them all, we naturally begin with it. Always held in honor, it has been self-sustaining and, with unimportant exceptions, self-reliant. The tillers of the earth have been content with the bread it yielded to honest toil. Monsieur Quesnai, in the reign of Louis XIV, did, indeed, attempt to teach them that they, of all men, deserved the special favor of government, in that they were the only *real* producers of wealth. An exemption from taxation was, naturally, one of these favors; and, with such a theory, it was not hard to make the farmers the pet children of legislation. The splendid fallacy of this great Frenchman exercised, for some time, a high and controlling influence, as may be marked in many of the events which followed, and which has not yet, perhaps, been entirely dissipated. The famous corn-law controversies, which agitated Great Britain for the last century, is a result of the favor claimed for the agriculturist. To multiply bread, the nation has, at one time, forbid its *exportation*, and, at at another, its *importation*—undoing in one reign or parliament the work of another, and vascillating between both extremes. They have not legislated the nation, however, out of famines, or the chance of famines, and nothing more clearly demonstrates the *inutility* of such legislation, to say the least of it, than this, that the very *opposite* courses have been adopted or advocated, at different times, *to secure the same ends*. It has been even thought, that the product of bread might be stimulated by bounties, as though the appetite and natural wants of man were not sufficient stimulous for every purpose. An artificial or legal bounty, presupposes that there is no natural one, and, consequently, no existing want. A natural bounty is that reward which a producer receives for the labor expended upon a commodity *in-demand*. If no such sufficient bounty be afforded, there is, really, no sufficient demand; and in this case the commodity ought not to be produced. The farmers, too, are frequently admonished of the value and importance of the *home market* for their grains, as if there were, in reality, any other market. Every bushel of wheat or potatoes, every blade of corn, rye or rice, made in America, or in any other country, excepting, perhaps, Ireland, is consumed in it. Not in bread and puddings, altogether, yet, certainly, for the most part—but in cottons, broad cloths, silks or wines, or whatever else it is converted into. Though a peck of corn satisfy my natural wants for a week, yet, in one sense, I consume a bushel or more daily. It appears in my coat, my hat and my boots, for which it has been exchanged. Or, if it be said, our pregnant grain crops are not consumed at home—pray, tell us where they are consumed? Do we toil, that others may reap the harvest—and become the hewers of wood and drawers of water, for the world at large? Far otherwise the Yankee character. What our fields produce, we enjoy—and sometimes a little more, by running in debt to foreigners.

But, to do the agriculturists justice, they have not been very noisy applicants for government patronage, in comparison with others; since, as Adam Smith remarks, farmers and country gentlemen, dispersed in different parts of the country, cannot so easily combine as merchants and manufacturers, who, being collected in towns, and accustomed to that exclusive corporation spirit which prevails in them, naturally endeavor to obtain, against all their countrymen, the same exclusive privilege which they generally possess against the inhabitants of their respective towns.*

The question of *manufactures*, as another great branch of industry in flourishing nations, presents itself next. Capitalists have, in almost every country, conceived the chances of success but slim and problematical, in this field, without the arm of government for a shield. If a nation must be fed, it must be clothed; and in the elements of heat and cold there are no sufficient stimulants for the production of this clothing! The *exportation* of the raw, unwrought material was made, by the statutes of England, felony, and its *importation*, from every quarter, encouraged, even by bounties. It would not be difficult to enumerate the various measures which have been adopted in favor of the manufacturers, in enabling them to compete, as it is claimed, successfully with foreign competitors. But we have not the time now.

The *merchants* have been the last important order to grow up in the world. Ignorance of navigation, and the barbarous systems of international law which converted foreigners into slaves, stifled the commercial spirit of antiquity. Trade was held in disrepute both in Athens and at Rome. The Romans *prohibited* it with barbarians. After the fall of the Roman Empire and on the growth of the feudal system, all industry naturally declined and commerce was out of the question. The discovery of the western world began a new era. The colonial systems had their origin now, and came soon to be curiously elaborated. The object of these was to build up the commerce of each State at any and every expense. The merchants of each community were supposed to be naturally at war with those of every other. Their jealousies and rivalries were extreme. Reciprocity was impossible. All of them appealed to their respective governments for aid and protection against each other, and it became universally popular to grant such aid.

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* The Louisiana planters have received small share of government favor. The cotton lords and iron lords of the North, have no objection to any amount of aid; but then, when you come to sugar, why, they tell you, "that is one of the necessaries of life—you must not tax that; no, nor tea, either, nor coffee."

It would take a volume to enumerate all the laws that have been passed in support of the merchant interests of the world. The course of Britain and her colonies would come under particular and minute examination. For the encouragement of a particular interest, measures the most preposterous have been adopted by her, and injurious, in the last degree, to the nation at large. "The tariff or customs of England," remarked Mr. Montesquieu, "are very unsettled; with respect to other nations, they are changed, in some measure, with every parliament, either by taking off particular duties or by imposing new ones. They endeavor, by this means, still to preserve their independence. Supremely jealous with respect to trade, they bind themselves but little by treaties and depend only upon their own laws. Other nations have made the interests of commerce yield to that of politics—the English, on the contrary, have always made their political interests give way to those of commerce. They know better than any other people upon earth how to value, at the same time, these three great advantages—religion, commerce and liberty."

In regard to France and Spain, and the other great commercial powers of the old world, the measure of injustice has been heaped up to overflowing. Mr. Burke, indeed, spoke of the colonial system of France as the perfection of administrative wisdom—though it is thought he was more dazzled by the *results*, which, in such productive regions, were brilliant *in spite of* every evil influence. The system was held up by enormous taxation at home, and very light taxation in the colonies. That the colonial policy of France was the most injudicious and expensive that could have been conceived, with regard to the people of France, and almost the worst that could have been planned for the retention of the colonies, is amply proved by facts.*

Old Spain seemed to have determined to make the most of the new world, of which she had by far the most prolific and extensive portion. The perfection of restrictions, established by her for the benefit of particular classes, has long ago met with its appropriate reward, in the ruin of every class. She built up exclusive commercial companies in Cadiz and at Seville, the most magnificent of the age, and these merchant princes, in their unparalleled profits, sapped the very life blood of the nation.

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* McGreggor's Progress of America, book viii, chap. 1.

"Spain," we quote again from McGreggor, "with absurd regulations which embarrassed and ruined her colonial commerce, was unable to export or manufacture the raw products of her vast colonies, and would neither permit them to be exported or manufactured by the colonists—nor suffer foreigners to export them and give in exchange to the colonists those articles that they most wanted. A contraband trade necessarily arose, and this illicit trade reduced the price of the products of those colonies to a wretched rate, as their sale depended upon an uncertain arrival of a greater or less number of smuggling vessels, etc. Spanish colonial commerce and agriculture constantly languished; yet, some colossal fortunes were acquired in two or three years by generals, intendants and commissioners of customs."*

In the United States, the merchants have frequently complained that, in the administration of government favors, they have been overlooked. Certain it is, they have not been conceived in need of the same kind of countenance that other interests were thought to demand. There are few instances that can be pointed to, where we have made any special efforts to build up particular classes of commerce, unless the general theoretical favor shown to the *home trade* be an exception. No particular benefits have been intended or conferred, and the aids extended have rather been the legitimate ones of treaty regulations and consular missions. Though a great commercial nation, we seem to have been more solicitous to build up manufactures. It is not so clear, however, if we have not specially benefited, that we have not sometimes specially injured, commerce, by our legislation.

Under the three great heads of agriculture, commerce and manufactures, all the direct interferences with the industry of a people, on the part of their rulers, might strictly be classed. We have aimed at a mere general enumeration, without regarding those important interferences of "trades unions," and apprentice associations, and strict corporations, which, after the downfall of the feudal system, began to grow up in the then forming towns of Europe. They have not yet ceased to exist, and our most respectable mechanics will, even now, admonish you of the importance of close corporations of particular tradesmen, for the purpose of securing adequate or high wages, and for putting down the oppressions of crushing capitalists and unlicensed competition. All such measures belong to the one great, but erroneous system, which supposes industry and enterprise *impotent* in defending themselves, and incapable of marching onward to prosperity when left in the most perfect freedom.

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* McGreggor's Progress of America, book vii, chap. 1.

Government, we should take it as an axiom, was never a creator of wealth since the world was known. It can never produce two blades of grass where but one grew before. It may take, and does take—often rightfully, but more frequently unrighteously—money out of the pockets of the people, rather than put any in. It is but the creature of men—supported by their contributions, guaranteed by their necessities, and ceases to exist at whatever moment they will it. Men have formed themselves into political unions for protection and defense. They have required a shield, and not a sword. They have seen the importance of submitting to some privations of national liberty for the sake of greater benefits. These benefits are called regulated freedom; and all unnecessary legislation must be repealed—since, if it can be proved a law does no good, it necessarily does harm! Would that an enlightened political economy could teach the rulers of the world to have an unlimited confidence in the elasticity, in the potency, of industry—unfettered, uncontrolled, free—in the production of national wealth and prosperity, and an unlimited *distrust* of their own powers of directing, establishing or promoting, this industry.*

When it is asked: Which have been the most prosperous countries in the world? it must be answered (other things being equal, or, even often, very far from equal)—*the freest.* In a despotic country, men will not aim to accumulate, but rather to hoard what they have. There can be no enterprise, if an arbitrary government may interfere in its results and appropriate them to itself, either by extraordinary taxation, or—as in Turkey and Russia, and many eastern countries—by cunningly devised laws, or even by open violence. Remove the securities and bulwarks of property, and it ceases to be valuable. The interest of the slave, the serf or the villain, is to squander what he has rather than to add to it. Hence, the low state of industry, where men find themselves in this condition.

It is not difficult to determine the true sources of national prosperity, though the most egregious errors have been made in doing it. Why has one nation advanced forward to wealth and power, while another—and a neighbor—has remained stationary or declined? How can the extraordinary progress of the United States, within the short period of its history, unparalleled in the annals of man, be accounted for upon satisfactory principles?

We answer, without qualification, the industry of this country—though the exceptions are not few or unimportant—has, in every period, been FREE. Without this, it were in vain an empire of wealth lay buried in the bosom of the continent awaiting the hand to develop it. There would be no such hand, as Spanish America has shown.

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* If we seem trenching upon party ground, the reader will give us credit for fairness in having published, several months ago, a very strong article in our pages, advocating the protective system.

We say, her industry has been free, which supposes a legitimate, sound and liberal government, multiplying, in no instance, restraints, without an honest conviction they are for the public weal. The error, of policy, once clearly pointed out, has almost always been followed immediately by its removal, if not in whole, yet, in part. One may hope for such a country an ultimate perfection, from the constant application of the principles of a sound political system.

But this will not be to say every thing, though it be much, that our country is *free*. The people, themselves, who are to prosper from freedom, must be an industrious and an enterprising people. The African, when released from the dominion of a master, becomes the double slave of indolence and want. As much depends upon *races* as upon political institutions. The United States have been peopled by the Anglo Saxon, whose indomitable spirit is broken by no toil nor labor, and whose enterprise and activity are baffled by no combination of difficulties, dangers and obstructions. This has been the ruling element of our population, and the other elements have gradually assimilated themselves to it. The Spaniards inhabited a garden spot at home, and they sought a paradise in America, at a time their northern neighbors were struggling with icebergs; a prolific soil yielded them wealth, with only the labor of taking it away. Yet, where is the empire which this people have established upon the American continent?

There must be a free government and an enterprising people; but there must, also, be a soil, climate and country, favorable enough and extensive enough to operate upon. In these, the United States have been signally blessed. Our climate is adapted to every branch of industry and enterprise. We include the ice factors of New England, the fur catchers of Oregon, the sugar and cotton growers of Florida and Texas, and all the elaborations employed upon their products. Without so various. and yet so advantageous, a distribution of climate, a nation could not thus advance. In the regions of Siberia, or upon the equatorial line, the Anglo Saxon, with all his free laws, had done but little. Though the climate, too, be as favorable as Italy and as genial as Switzerland, and the soil rocky, sterile or exhausted, the results would again have been different. Our soil is virgin, prolific almost in *spontaneous* products. And yet. because of such a soil, and without our other advantages, Ireland has been hopelessly beggared! Finally, the country must be capacious and susceptible of indefinite extension: and what country like ours, in this respect? Fancy the original thirteen States to contain *all* the territory over which our population could ever have spread. Yet Russia has a territory as unlimited as ours, and Brazil one very nearly so.

All of these conditions must be combined to make a great and a flourishing people. No one of them, singly, can do it.

It is not that emigrants have been pouring in upon us from all the world—that we have been prolific and augmenting, in an uncommon ratio, by natural means—that any boast is now made. Mere population is, in itself, no element of prosperity and wealth. A declining country may continually grow more populous, and a ruined one—as we have seen a notable instance of, in Ireland—may stock the world with its swarms of emigrants, and yet augment, each year, its *home* population. Population *often* comes when it is *not* wanted, and where it is not wanted. It *never ceases* to come where it *is* wanted. Legislators need never stimulate it. In all old countries its increase should be restrained, rather than encouraged. In new countries it will augment as fast—taking long periods into consideration—as it is wanted, and in obedience to its own peculiar laws.

Though the United States had double its present population, it does not follow there would be double the wealth and prosperity. Certainly, a tenfold augmentation of population, would not be followed by a tenfold prosperity. Numbers and population are but an item, and the least important one, in estimating a nation's position and power in the world. The best population may not exist in just proportion to the means of support, and national decline ensues. It is sufficient here to remark, with Malthus, "That a permanent increase of population is a powerful and necessary element of increasing demand, will be most readily allowed; but that the increase of population alone, or, more properly, the pressure of the population hard against the limits of subsistence, does not furnish an effective stimulus to the continued increase of wealth, is not only evident in theory, but is confirmed by universal experience. It is obvious, then, in theory, that an increase of population, when an additional quantity of labor is not wanted, will soon be checked by want of employment and the scanty support of those employed, and will not furnish the required stimulus to an increase of wealth, proportioned to the power of production."

Having shown the intimate relationship subsisting between political economy and government, and how the doctrines of the one should influence the action of the other, and the two combined the industry and prosperity of a nation, but little can remain to be said.

Every circumstance, we have seen, which can give intensity to the laws of natural progress, have been constantly in operation in the United States, throughout every period of its history, and remains till in undiminished force. Let us be content with the results which have been achieved, and which as clearly indicate others, yet more brilliant, in the future. The industry of our people needs no monitors, as to its best mode of application under every possible circumstance—and, least of all, monitors made out of such stuff as our politicians usually are. As intelligence is generally diffused throughout the masses, they will perceive and admit this, and the one cry, which will every where be heard, remain evermore, "*let us alone.*"

Diffuse, then, knowledge everywhere, throughout the length and breadth of this great country—multiply the means of information—send the schoolmaster into every hovel—dot every hill with the school house or the college—let the press, without intermission, night and day, pour forth its steady streams of light—foster science and the arts—let the civilizing and godlike influences of machinery uninteruptedly extend—then will the future of our country, open, boundless and great, beyond all example, beyond all compare, and countless ages bless its mission and acknowledge its glorious dominion.

ART. II.—THE BARON HUMBOLDT'S "COSMOS."—Part 2.

THE reader and the admirer of Humboldt, whom we shall regard as one and the same person, will, doubtless, be surprised at the extraordinary transition from the first to the second volume of "Cosmos." The subjects treated, and, indeed, the mode of treating them, in some respects, are totally different. Whether, in the second effort, he has sustained the character won in the first, and whether the transition is natural and warranted by the expectations provoked in the first, will, we venture to say, depend very much on the patience, taste and range of acquirements, of the reader.

The first volume relates to the laws and phenomena of the material world, the second relates to mental development in a certain line; the first is physical, the second metaphysical; the first scientific, the second critical and historical; the first deserves its title, and none other would suit it; the second would be just as true under the title of a "historical and critical analysis of mental development in the contemplation of nature." We shall not offer a new title page to the philosopher of half a century's renown, but merely say what we should guess, for a title page, had we read the second volume without previous impressions; and, with this prefix, it seems to us, any reader would have higher enjoyment, and yield the work a stronger plaudit, than it is certain to receive as a continuation of the Cosmos, which has been several years on our shelves.

Few of his readers are philosophers, and those who are entitled to such a distinction, are rarely acquainted with every branch of science and art; and the taste for natural and exact science is so rarely coupled with a genius for letters, and a competent knowledge of philosophy and ethics, that one-half of the readers of Cosmos will skim over the second volume with a faint approval, or no approval at all. It travels quite out of the range of most physical philosophers; and the metaphysical and historical student, having never heard of the labors of Baron Von Humboldt, in his field of research, will not be prompted by the name of his book, or his past reputation, to open the Cosmos.

Still he who shall have the time and the proper taste, for this second volume, will find the labors of the venerable octogenarian have done him little less credit there than in the fields of his former celebrity.

What library has not Alexander Humboldt ransacked? What work of travels, history, science or art, is unknown to, or unread by him? Many an author, little known when he lived, and totally forgotten in the dusty shelves of the middle centuries, has been kindly exhumed, and brought into the society of the nineteenth century, and placed side by side, to his utter astonishment, with those who fill the world with the eclat of their present fame. Who of us ever heard that there once lived a poet named Angilbertus, or a navigator named Fratelli Zeni, or his biographer Marcolni?

But let us present specimens, showing, somewhat, the line and character of the second volume of the Cosmos:

> "In order to depict nature, in its exalted sublimity, we must not dwell exclusively on its external manifestations, but we must trace its images, reflected in the mind of man, at one time filling the dreamy land of physical myths with forms of grace and beauty, and, at another time, developing the germ of artistic creations.
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> "In limiting myself to the simple consideration of incitements to a scientific study of nature, I would not, however, omit calling attention to the fact, that impressions arising from apparently accidental circumstances, often, as is repeatedly confirmed by experience, exercise so powerful an effect on the youthful mind, as to determine the whole direction of man's character and career through life."

After mentioning the study of maps and travels, as giving him his propensity for travel and widely extended observation, he adds that "these objects, here instanced, by way of illustration, belong to three classes of inducements to the study of nature, viz.: the description of nature, when springing from an animated impression of terrestrial forms; the delineative art of landscape painting, and the direct objec tive consideration of the distinctive features of natural forms. The power exercised by these incitements is, however, limited to the sphere embraced by modern cultivation, and to those individuals, whose minds have been rendered more susceptible to impressions, by a peculiar disposition, fostered, by some special direction, in the development of their mental activity."

After these preliminary intimations, Humboldt gives his sanction to the opinion, that "though the enjoyment, derived from the contemplation of nature, was not wholly unknown to the ancients, the feeling was, nevertheless, much more rarely, and less vividly, expressed, than in modern times." And his subsequent analysis of the history of the development of the idea of the beautiful and the harmonious in nature well sustains the opinion. And we rely upon this very fact, as a strong argument in favor of modern refinement and mental cultivation over the ancient. The comparisons, made by many lovers of antiquarian research, and champions of ancient enlightenment, are usually made in the dark, or based upon imaginary inferences. Humboldt has put the matter to the test, and, I think, settled the question. The Greeks, with the highest cultivation of letters, art and poetry, known to ancient times, seem to have been quite without a knowledge of the description of natural beauty as a branch of poetic literature.

"The landscape appears among them, merely as the back-ground of the picture, of which human figures constitute the main subject. Passions, breaking forth in action, riveted their attention almost exclusively. An active life, spent chiefly in public, drew the minds of men from dwelling with enthusiastic exclusiveness on the silent workings of nature, and led them, always, to consider physical phenomena as having reference to mankind, whether in the relations of external conformation or of internal development. It was almost exclusively under such relations, that the consideration of nature was deemed worthy of being admitted into the domain of poetry, under the fantastic form of comparisons, which often present small detached pictures, replete with *objective* truthfulness.

"At Delphi, pæans to spring were sung, being intended, probably, to express the delights of man, at the termination of the discomforts of winter. A natural description of winter is interwoven (perhaps by the hand of some Ionian rhapsodist) in the works and days of Hesiod. This poem, which is composed with noble simplicity, although in accordance with the rigid didactic form, gives instructions regarding agriculture, directions for different kinds of trades and labor, and ethic precepts for a blameless course of life. It is only elevated to the dignity of a lyric poem, when the poet clothes the miseries of mankind, or the exquisite mythical allegory of Epimetheus and Pandora, in an anthropomorphic garb. In the Theogony of Hesiod, which is composed of many ancient and dissimilar elements, we frequently find, as, for instance, in the enumeration of the Nereides, natural descriptions of the realm of Neptune, concealed under the significant names of mythical characters. The Bœotian, and, indeed, all the ancient schools of poetry, treat only of the phenomena of the external world, under the personification of human forms."

It is obvious, from this extract, that the scope of this volume of the Cosmos is very wide; for, if literature is to be scanned from the time of Hesiod to Chalmers for material, the task must be elaborate: but, when literature, science, mythology and history, each has to unbosom itself and render its tribute, the labor of the author seems prodigious; and he seems to have laid a master's hand wherever he has touched. We shall leap to an advanced page for another extract:

"We are indebted to modern cultivation for a constantly advancing enlargement of our field of view, an increasing accumulation of ideas and feelings, and the powerful influence of their mutual reaction.

"Without leaving the land of our birth, we not only learn to know how the earth's surface is fashioned, in the remotest zones, and by what animal and vegetable forms it is occupied, but we may even hope to have delineations presented to us, which shall vividly reflect, in some degree, at least, the impressions conveyed by the aspect of external nature to the inhabitants of those distant regions.

"To satisfy this demand, to comply with a requirement that may be termed a species of intellectual enjoyment wholly unknown to antiquity, is an object for which modern times are striving; and it is an object which will be crowned with success, since it is the common work of all civilized nations, and because the greater perfection of the means of communication, by sea and land, renders the whole earth more accessible, and facilitates the comparison of the most widely separated parts."

These are substantial reasons for the position we have assumed, for the superiority of modern over ancient cultivation and refinement.

The following paragraph would be better suited to the pen of a Burke, or a Blair, than that of a philosopher in physics—the diffuseness of the translator being deducted:

"Descriptions of nature, I would again observe, may be defined with sufficient justness and scientific accuracy, without, on that account, being deprived of the vivifying breath of imagination. The poetic element must emanate from the intuitive perception of the connection between the sensuous and the intellectual, and of the universality, and reciprocal limitation and unity, of all the vital forces of nature. The more elevated the subject, the more carefully should all external adornments of diction be avoided. The true effect of a picture of nature depends on its composition; every attempt at an artificial appeal from the author, must, therefore, necessarily exert a disturbing influence.

"He who, familiar with the great works of antiquity, and secure in the possession of the riches of his native language, knows how to represent, with the simplicity of individualizing truth, that which he hath received from his own contemplation, will not fail in producing the impression he seeks to convey; for, in describing the boundlessness of nature, and not the limited circuit of his own mind, he is enabled to leave to others unfettered freedom of feeling."

But if the second volume of the Cosmos has carried us far beyond the taste and appreciation of most scientific readers, we are left to hope that the third volume, which is to complete the series, and end the earthly labors of the illustrious savan of three-score years' celebrity, will bring the richest, highest enjoyment of all. We shall look for it with lively interest, and, when it comes, do more for it than we can boast for this; that is, read it entirely through. Hear what the author says of its scope:

> "The third and last portion of my work will, for the better elucidation of the general picture of nature, set forth those results of observation on which the present condition of scientific opinions is principally based. Much that, according to other views than mine regarding the composition of a book of nature, may have appeared wanting, will there find its place.
>
> "Excited by the brilliant manifestation of new discoveries, and nourishing hopes, the fallacy of which continues long undetected, each age dreams that it has approximated closely to the culminating point of the recognition and comprehension of nature. I doubt whether, on serious reflection, such a belief would tend to heighten the enjoyment of the present.
>
> "A more animating conviction, and one more consonant with the destiny of our race, is, that the conquests already achieved constitute only a very inconsiderable portion of those to which free humanity will attain, in future ages, by the progress of mental activity and general cultivation."

These are the views of the true philosopher. The solution of a truth in nature, before unknown, is no ultimate solution. It is but one step of progress in knowledge, and often substitutes two truths for the mystery solved. It is not likely that mere finite mortals are to master what sprang from the infinite wisdom of God. When we shall have accomplished this (if ever), then shall we really be as Gods. What another life may furnish the human soul, for its demands, we are not informed; but, in this life, that will, doubtless, be the greatest blessing, which insures, to both mind and body, no exhaustion of the supplies necessary to its subsistence and enjoyment. With the author of the Cosmos, we pray that the last mysteries of the natural world may never be revealed to man.

ART. III.—GOVERNMENT OF BRITISH INDIA.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT; ECCLESIASTICAL; LEGISLATIVE; JUDICIAL; MILITARY, FISCAL AND POLITICAL STATE.*

THE number and constitution of the Company's courts are constantly changing; for, as the system for the administration of justice to the natives is grossly imperfect and inefficient, every successive governor-general seeks to improve it. What is true, therefore, of one period may not be true of another, and what is true of one presidency is not generally true of the others. The system is worst under the Madras presidency, where few native judges are employed, and those few little trusted; and it is most efficient under the Bombay presidency, where almost all original civil suits have been tried before native judges for a period of about twenty years, their decisions, however, being subject to appeal to European judges. The same system has been extensively introduced into the Bengal presidency within the last fifteen years, and with similar great success. The following is an outline of the system in the provinces of Bengal and Behar, to which the system of the north-western provinces and of the Bombay presidency nearly corresponds. Bengal and Behar are divided into twenty-five districts, and in each district there are three classes of native judges. The lowest and most numerous class, amounting to six, twelve, and even sometimes eighteen distributed through one district, have jurisdiction in suits for an amount not exceeding three hundred rupees ($150). The next class, of whom there are not more than two, sometimes only one, in one district, have jurisdiction in suits for an amount not exceeding one thousand rupees ($500). And the third class, of whom there are three, two, and sometimes only one, in one district, have jurisdiction in suits for an amount not exceeding five thousand rupees ($2,500). No peculiar requirements are looked for in a native judge beyond general good character, respectability of family, and a competent knowledge of the Persian and Bengalee languages. No liberal or polite education, no legal acquirements, no knowledge even of the general forms and rules of practice prescribed by the regulations of the Indian government, are generally possessed by any candidate for office. The decisions of the lowest class of these native judges of the district, of whom there are sometimes three, sometimes two, but generally only one in each district. If on appeal a decision is affirmed, it is final; but, if reversed, it is again appealable to the Company's Superior Court of Appeal in Calcutta, consisting generally of eight or nine judges, each sitting separately, and dividing amongst them the numerous appealed cases. If the sum litigated is not less than ten thousand rupees ($5,000), the decision of the superior court is also appealable to the judicial committee of the Privy Council in England. The English appeal judges, in India, are equally, with the native judges, destitute of a legal education, except that which is acquired by practice and reading. In suits regarding succession, inheritance, marriage, caste and all religious usages and institutions, the laws professedly administered are those of Hindoos to Hindoos, and those of Mohammedans to Mohammedans; but not in suits regarding contracts, which are interpreted according to principles laid down in the regulations and acts of the British India government. In suits between Mohammedans and Hindoos, the law of the defendant is always followed.

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* Concluded from August Number.

For the administration of criminal justice, there is in every district an English police magistrate, under whom the district is divided into smaller parts, varying from twelve to eighteen in each, of which there is a native superintendent of police, with subordinate officers, who makes daily reports to the magistrate of the state of his division, apprehends offenders and sends them with witnesses to the head station. For certain minor offenses and within certain limits of punishment, they are tried and convicted or acquitted by the magistrate. For higher offenses, they are committed by the magistrate for trial before the Session Judge, which office is discharged by the same individual who has been already mentioned as the English District Judge of Appeal in civil suits. As Session Judge, he holds monthly sessions for the trial of persons committed by the magistrate, and his sentences are revised, and either affirmed or annulled, by the Superior Criminal Court in Calcutta, which consists of the same judges who constitute the Superior Court of Appeal in civil suits. There is also a general superintendent of police for the two provinces of Bengal and Behar, who travels over the country and reports the condition of each district to government, awakening the zeal of magistrates and their subordinate officers, and suggesting such improved arrangements as may lead to the suppression of crime. The law administered is the Mohammedan criminal law, both for Hindoos and Mohammedans, adopted by the English from their Mohammedan predecessors, but very essentially mitigated in some of its harsh and sanguinary provisions.

In 1834, a law commission was issued to certain persons, five in number, recommended by the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control, directing and empowering them to inquire into the jurisdiction, powers and rules of existing courts and police establishments throughout India, and into the forms of judicial procedure and the nature and operation of the laws, civil, criminal, written or customary; to report results and to suggest alterations—regard being had to the caste, religion, manners and opinions, among different races and in different parts. The only important result that has followed the labors of these commissioners, is the preparation and recommendation of a penal code for all India, which, however, as far as is known, has not yet been adopted. No modification of the civil law or the law of procedure has been effected.

Corresponding with the territorial divison into presidencies, there are three armies in British India—the Bengal army, the Madras army and the Bombay army—separately organized, officered and commanded, and subject, in many respects, to different rules and regulations. The commander-in-chief of the Bengal army, is also commander-in-chief of all the three armies. When the governor-general of India belongs to the military profession, he may also be the commander-in-chief of all the armies of India; but, when he is a civilian, the latter office is held by a separate individual, who may then also become an extraordinary member of the Supreme Council of India. In like manner, the governor of Madras or of Bombay, if of the military profession, may be the commander-in-chief of the Madras or Bombay forces; but, if the governor is a civilian, then the chief command of the forces is held by a different person, who also becomes a member of the Governor's council. These appointments of commanders-in-chief of the armies of the respective presidencies, and commander-in-chief of all the armies of India, are made by the Court of Directors, subject to the approbation of the crown. From these high offices down to the lowest commissioned offices of ensigns and cadets, the India army is officered by Englishmen who are sent from England for that purpose, and who rise according to seniority and length of service to higher commands. The rank and file of the army in India, is composed of Hindoos of all descriptions—Rajpoots, Mahrattas, Brahmans, Goorkhas, Sikhs—and of Mohammedans, Jews and Christians, that is, native Christians, with different proportions of each in the different armies. The army of Bengal is estimated to be one-eighth or one-tenth Mohammedan, and the rest Hindoo. The armies of Madras and Bombay are about one-third Mohammedan and two-thirds Hindoo. Jews are found only in the Bombay army; and native Christians are employed only in the musical bands attached to regiments. The entire native army of the three presidencies consists of about 120,000 troops, composed of twenty-one regiments of cavalry, one hundred and fifty-two regiments of infantry, and two battalions of artillery, to which are to be added 30,000 European troops of all arms, including infantry, horse artillery and foot artillery, besides European and native veteran battalions, provincial corps and irregular horse, of all which no authenticated enumeration is known to exist. The regular army, in various divisions and detachments, in times of peace, garrison forts, or are stationed in military cantonments, all over the country, wherever there is weak point or a turbulent population; or, wherever, for any other reason, a military force may appear requisite. In the language of a writer, in the confidence of the British India government, "In India, a large standing army is absolutely necessary to the existence of the English government. Without it, they would not collect a shilling of revenue from any portion of the country, nor hold its administration for a day." Native Christians are not permitted to enter the rank and file of the army with Hindoos and Mohammedans, although Jews are; and Hindoos and Mohammedans are permitted to rise to the dignity of corporals and sergeants, and of offices corresponding in name, but not in trust, emoluments or rank, with those of ensign and lieutenant held by Englishmen. Beyond that point, all offices of command are held by the conquering race in their own hands.

The ecclesiastical establishment of India, consists of a bishop, an archdeacon and a body of clergy, at each of the three presidencies, of whom the bishop of Calcutta is the metropolitan, and the bishops of Madras and Bombay are suffragan bishops, subject to the metropolitical, visitorial and appellate jurisdiction of the bishop of Calcutta.

The island of Ceylon, although a crown colony, and not subject to the government of the East India Company, is, from its proximity, included in the diocese of Madras. The clergy in each presidency, were originally appointed as chaplains to garrisons and factories, and such, for the most part, are the duties which they still discharge, being principally attached to the military cantonments, and large civil stations throughout the country. The expense on account of bishops and archdeacons, is limited to 120,000 rupees, or $60,000 per annum, which is exclusive of the pay of the inferior clergy, and the whole expense is paid out of the revenues of India. Parliament has also directed, that, from 1814, a sum of 100,000 rupees or $50,000 per annum, should be employed in promoting the education of the people; and, with such inadequate means, some very feeble, desultory, and ill-directed efforts, have been made with that view.

The fiscal system of the British India government, draws from the country an amount of revenue, varying from 20 to £23,000,000 per annum. The customs, stamps, post office, and other minor sources, yield about £2,000,000 per annum; the salt and opium monopolies yield about £4,500,000; and the remainder is a land tax, or, as the British India government prefers to call it, a land rent—*i. e.*, a rent paid to government, by the tenant, occupier, or cultivator, for the use of the soil. The principle, or theory, on which this tax or rent is exacted, is the same as that which is recognized in the United States, when the general government is considered as the holder and owner of the public lands, for the benefit of the people. The difference is, that here the government parts with this proprietary right, and gives the farmer a fee simple, or absolute right in the land which he cultivates. In India the prince, or the government for the time being, is, and continues to be, the universal proprietor of the soil. All lands pay rent, either to the government or to some person to whom the existing government, or former prince and government, may have assigned it, either for a term of years, or on a life-tenure, or in perpetuity. In the provinces of Bengal and Behar, the English government has voluntarily and permanently limited its own demand for rent; that is, it has agreed never to claim more than it now receives. In the north-western provinces of India, it has more recently limited its demand for rent, for periods of twenty and thirty years, at the end of which periods it may raise its claims. In the chief provinces of the Madras and Bombay presidencies, it makes annual arrangements with the cultivators, and increases or diminishes its demands, from year to year, according to the judgment of its affairs, respecting the ability of the cultivator to pay. In each district there is a collector, or principal revenue officer, always an Englishman, and generally the same who discharges the duties of police magistrate in the district, and under him various subordinate native officers are employed in the collection of revenue. The whole system is as unjust and oppressive, as it is unwise and impolitic.

The political relations of the British India government, are either internal or external. Externally, that government has entered into political relations with Persia—first, to counteract the aggressive policy of France, and subsequently that of Russia; with Cabul, which, from a quiet neighbor, has been exasperated into an irreconcilable enemy;

with Senna, Muscat, and various Arab tribes, and with Abyssinia, Siam, and Acheen, for the promotion of British commerce and the extinction of piracy and the slave trade; and with Nepal and Burmah, both of which have been conquered in war, and stripped of valuable territory. Sinde, an independent State on the north-west frontier of India, with which diplomatic relations previously existed, was recently invaded, vanquished, and absorbed into the British territory. The Punjaub, another independent State, to the north of the British possessions, with which friendly treaties existed, has, for about the last ten years, since the death of Runjut Singh, been in a condition of internal convulsion, which has resulted in the total subjugation of the country by the East India Company's government. The British India government has no permanent diplomatic intercourse with Siam, Cochin China, or China.

In explanation of the internal political relations of the British India government, it must be borne in mind, that, although England has subdued India, she has not yet appropriated the whole. Numerous native States still exist, all acknowledging, by treaty, her paramount authority, and all relinquishing political relations with one another, and with all other States—internal combinations and foreign alliances hostile to English power being thus prevented. The native States may be divided into six classes, according to the nature of the treaties formed with them. The *first* class, consists of five native States, who have treaties offensive and defensive, with the right on their part to claim protection, external and internal, from the British India government, and the right on its part to interfere in their internal affairs. The *second* class, consists of two States, with which there are treaties offensive and defensive, acknowledging the right on their part to claim protection, external and internal, from the British India government, and the aid of its troops to realize their just claims from their own subjects; but no right on its part to interfere in their internal affairs. The *third* class, consists of at least twenty-five States, with which there are treaties, offensive and defensive: they are mostly tributary, acknowledge the supremacy of the British India government, and promise subordinate coöperation; but they are supreme rulers in their own territories. The *fourth* class, includes five States, with which there are treaties of guarantee and protection—promising subordinate coöperation, and securing their supremacy in their own territories. To the *fifth* class belongs only one State, with which there is a treaty of simple amity and friendship. The *sixth* class includes those States, with which there are treaties of protection, with the right on the part of the British India government to control their internal affairs. These native States, in the aggregate, have a revenue of about £12,000,000 per annum. They maintain armies of their own, more or less effective; and most of them are bound by treaty to aid the British India government in time of war, with the whole, or a specified portion of their troops. The total area which their territories embrace, is about 450,000 square miles, while that of the British territories in India, is about 625,000 square miles. The proportion of the entire population of India subject to native States, is probably about one-third, and the remaining two-thirds are under the British government.

Such, is a very imperfect representation of the extraordinary and anomalous system of government, which England has devised for India—a system, the whole end and aim of which is, to keep about one hundred and fifty millions of people in subjection, and to extract from them as much revenue as possible. In spite, however, of the vices of a European despotism, and of an Asiatic people, the seeds of science and learning, religion, morality and freedom, are taking root, and will, ultimately, produce fruit.

ART. IV.—SLAVERY AND THE BIBLE.

[THIS paper has been handed us for publication, and, as it contains a summary of the Bible argument for slavery, we give it place, though the subject is growing hacknied.—ED.]

A VERY large party in the United States believe that holding slaves is morally wrong; this party founds its belief upon precepts taught in the Bible, and takes that book as the standard of morality and religion. We, also, look to the same book as our guide in the same matters; yet, we think it right to hold slaves—do hold them, and have held and used them from childhood.

As we come to such opposite conclusions from the same foundation, it may be well to consider, whether the Bible teaches us anything whatever, in regard to slavery; if so, what is it and how is it taught.

The anti-slavery party maintain, that the Bible teaches nothing *directly* upon the subject, but, that it establishes rules and principles of action, from which they infer, that, in holding slaves, we are guilty of a moral wrong. This mode of reasoning would be perfectly fair, if the Bible really taught nothing directly upon the subject of slavery: but when that book applies the principles it lays down to the particular subject in controversy, we must take the application to be correct. We think we can show, that the Bible teaches clearly and conclusively that the holding of slaves is right; and if so, no deduction from general principles can make it wrong, if that book is true.

From the earliest period of time down to the present moment, slavery has existed in some form or under some name, in almost every country of the globe. It existed in every country known, even by name, to any one of the sacred writers, at the time of his writing; yet no one of them condemns it in the slightest degree. Would this have been the case had it been wrong in itself? would not some one of the host of sacred writers have spoken of this alleged crime, in such terms as to show, in a manner not to be misunderstood, that God wished all men to be equal?

Abraham, the chosen servant of God, had his bond servants, whose condition was similar to, or worse than, that of our slaves. He considered them as his property, to be bought and sold as any other property which he owned. In Genesis xvii, 13, 23, 27, we are told that God commanded Abraham to circumcise all his bond-servants, "*bought with his money*," and that Abraham obeyed God's commandment on that same day. In Genesis xx, 14, we are told that Abimelech took sheep and oxen, and *men servants* and *women servants*, and gave them to Abraham. In chapter xii, verse 14, we are told that Abraham possessed sheep and oxen, and he asses, and men servants and maid servants, and she asses, and camels. Also, in Genesis xxvi, 14, Isaac is said to have had possessions of flocks and herds, and a great store of servants. In other places in Genesis, they are spoken of, but always as property.

Jacob's sons sold Joseph, their brother, to the Ishmaelites for twenty pieces of silver. They agreed with each other that they would sell him, when the Ishmaelites were afar off, and before they could have known that the Ishmaelites would buy him; only they knew, that such sales were common in the country at the time. The narrative of Joseph's life in Egypt, shows that the sale of slaves was common there.

No one can doubt, that Abraham regarded his servants as his property, and that they were so regarded in the country in which he lived. Not only was the bond-servant of Abraham considered his property, but the condition of the bond-servant was hereditary, or his child was a servant. In Genesis xvii, 13, God not only commanded Abraham to circumcise his servants, bought with his money, but also, those born in his house, and those which, at any future time, should be born in his house, or in that of any of his descendants; and in the twenty-third and twenty-seventh verses of the same chapter, we are told that Abraham did circumcise all his male servants, born in his house, on the same day. In chapter xiv of Genesis we are told, that Abraham took three hundred and eighteen trained servants, which had been born in his house, and pursued the kings who had carried off Lot. These three hundred and eighteen servants were born servants.

Let us now see what control Abraham exercised over these servants born in his house and bought with his money. God commanded Abraham to circumcise all his male servants—those born in his house were so numerous, that he had of them three hundred and eighteen men fit for battle. The command was, not that Abraham should use his influence over them and persuade them to be circumcised, but he and all his descendants are commanded to circumcise them—the crime and punishment for a disobedience to this command, were to fall on him or his descendants. Now, in order that God could have required this from Abraham, with any degree of justice, it was necessary that Abraham should have had both the power over his servants, which was necessary to enable him to do this, and also, that he should have had the legal and moral right to exercise that power.

Circumcision was a requirement, until then, totally unknown. Abraham's servants must have regarded it as a foolish whim of his own. Nothing else could have been considered more degrading to them, or more absurd in him. Yet, no one of all the immense number of his servants, refused to permit the circumcision to be performed. We may well suppose, that Abraham might have required anything else which his fancy dictated, and equally have enforced obedience, if it were not more absurd, painful or degrading.

When Sarai, Abraham's wife, complained to him of the conduct of Hagar, her maid servant, he answered, "thy maid is in thy hand, do to her as it pleaseth thee," showing that she only wanted her husband's consent to punish Hagar as she pleased. We are then told, that, when Sarai dealt hardly with her, she fled from her face into the wilderness—there the angel of the Lord found her; but, instead of relieving her distresses, and sending her to some free country, he told her to return and submit herself to her mistress.

When Abraham pursued Chederlaomer, the king of Elam, he took his three hundred and eighteen servants, and his three friends, Aner, Eschol and Mamre, and recaptured a large amount of property which had been carried away from Sodom. But when the king of Sodom offered him all the property which he had taken, he refused everything, except what his servants had eaten and the portion of his three friends—answering immediately for himself and his servants, and refusing everything, but reserving the right to his friends to answer for themselves.

From the passages which I have recited and referred to, we can obtain some idea of the condition of Abraham's servants. They were property bought and sold for money; their services belonged to him, and was disposed of without their consent. Their condition was hereditary—the master could punish or chastise the slave, and even maim him, at his pleasure. He exercised rights which no southern planter would dare to exercise, and which a southern negro would not submit to.

Abraham was a worshiper of God; he had direct and immediate communication with him. He showed his willingness to obey God's commands, even in offering his only son a sacrifice to God. He is spoken of by all the sacred writers, as one who was selected, from the whole human race, as the father of the faithful. God would not have so highly honored him, had he been living in constant and habitual violation of his laws: nor would he have required from him the performance of immaterial ceremonies, or of painful things not required by the moral law, and left him ignorantly to continue to violate his duties to his fellow men. Had our abolition friends been in God's stead, they would have certainly acted in a very different manner. Is there one of them who will dare to say, he would have done better than God did?

But God, instead of teaching Abraham, his chosen servant, that it was immoral to use and buy his slaves, demanded from him the performance of certain things, which required that the relation of master and slave should be kept up, not only during Abraham's time, but in all future ages. And when the angel of the Lord interfered between Sarai and Hagar, it was to cause the slave to submit to the punishment inflicted by her mistress. Under like circumstances, our slaves are persuaded to go to Canada.

From what I have written, if it stood alone, I would infer that the holding of slaves was right, in some cases. But this is, by no means, all that is found in the Bible upon the subject. After the Israelites had been a long time in Egypt, they became servants to the Egyptians. At this time, God sent Moses, as a messenger, to bring them out of Egypt. Through Moses, God gave them laws by which they were to be governed. No law which came directly from him (*the fountain of morality*), can be considered morally wrong; it might be imperfect, in not providing for circumstances not then existing—but, so far as it does provide, its provisions are correct. Nothing which God ordained can be a crime, and nothing for which he gave express permission can be considered wrong.

In Leviticus xxv, we are told, that the Lord spake to Moses, saying: "Speak unto the children of Israel, and say unto them"—after various provisions of the law, the 39th verse reads as follows, in regard to servitude: "If thy brother that dwelleth by thee be waxen poor, and be sold unto thee, thou shalt not compel him to serve as a bond-servant, but as an hired servant," &c.—clearly showing that there was a distinction between bond-servant and hired-servant. After providing for the case of a Hebrew servant, verses 44, 45 and 46, of the same law, read as follows: "Both thy bondmen, and thy bondmaids, which thou shalt have, shall be of the heathen that are round about you; of them shall ye buy bondmen and bondmaids. Moreover, of the children of the strangers that do sojourn among you, of them shall ye buy, and of their families that are with you, which they begat in your land: and they shall be your possession. And ye shall take them as an inheritance for your children after you, to inherit them for a possession; they shall be your bondmen *for ever.*"

In Exodus xxi, 20, 21, we find this law: "And if a man smite his servant, or his maid, with a rod, and he die under his hand, he shall be surely punished. Notwithstanding, if he continue a day or two, he shall not be punished: for he is his money."

The 26th and 27th verses of the same chapter provide, that if the servant have lost an eye or a tooth, by a blow from the master, the servant should go free.

The 29th, 30th, 31st and 32d verses provide, that if an ox was known to be vicious and killed a freeman, the ox and his owner were both put to death; but if he gored a bond-servant, the ox should be killed and the master should pay thirty shekels of silver: showing the distinction between bond and freemen.

The law given to the Israelites, in regard to circumcision, required the master to circumcise his male servant, bought with his money or born in his house; and, of course, it presupposes the right and power to enforce the circumcision.

Thus, we see that, at a time when the Israelites had no slaves, but were themselves, in a manner, fugitive slaves, and when they had no use for slaves, being wanderers in a wilderness, and fed by God's own hand, he provided laws for bringing in, buying, inheriting and governing, slaves, in the land unto which they were to be brought at the end of forty years. He made laws recognizing the right of property, in man and in his descendants, forever—the right to trade in that property, without any limit, except that the Israelites could not buy each other; and the right to punish the slave, with no limitation, except that if the slave should die under his master's hand, the master should be punished—and if maimed, in certain ways, he had a right to freedom. These laws are worse, for the slave, than the laws of any southern State. They were provided, by God himself, for his chosen people. To any man, who admits that the Bible is given by inspiration from God, they prove that, in buying, selling, holding and using slaves, there is no moral guilt. Like all the institutions of the Deity, the holding of slaves may become criminal, by abuse of the slave; but the relation, in itself, is good and moral.

In the New Testament I find frequent mention of master and servant, and of their duties. Paul and Timothy, in writing to the Colossians, in the third chapter and twenty-second to twenty-fifth verses, exhort servants to obey their masters in all things, and not with eye-service; and in the fourth chapter and first verse, they exhort masters to give their servants what is just and equal.

Paul, in writing to Timothy, tells him to teach the same doctrines; and says, if any man teach otherwise, he is proud, knowing nothing, but doting about questions and strifes of words: see 1 Timothy vi, 1–[illegible]. Peter, also (1 Peter ii, 18–24), exhorts servants to be obedient to their masters, not only to the good and gentle, but to the froward.

Now, we all know, that the condition of the servant of the Roman empire, was much less free than that of the southern negro. His master had a more unlimited control over him; yet, the apostles say to servants, to submit to their masters—not only to the good and gentle, but to the froward; and to masters to give to their servants what is just and equal. Now, had they considered the relation of master and slave, one criminal or immoral, in itself, they must either have omitted to speak of it at all, or have condemned the relation altogether.

Paul wrote an epistle to Philemon, a Christian, a disciple of his, and a slaveholder. He sent it to him by Onesimus, also a convert, a slave of Philemon, who was a fugitive. In it, he prays Philemon to charge the fault of Onesimus to him, saying, he would repay it, unless Philemon forgave it for his sake.

Now, had the holding of slaves been a crime, Paul's duty to Philemon would have required him to instruct Philemon, that he had no rights over Onesimus, but that the attempt to hold him in servitude, was criminal; and his duty to Onesimus would have been, in such case, to send him to some foreign free country, whereby he might have escaped from oppression. But Paul sent him back. Our northern friends think that they manage these matters better than Paul did.

We find, then, that both the Old and New Testaments speak of slavery—that they do not condemn the relation, but, on the contrary, expressly allow it or create it; and they give commands and exhortations, which are based upon its legality and propriety. It can not, then, be wrong.

What we have written is founded solely upon the Bible, and can have no force, unless it is taken for truth. If that book is of divine origin, the holding of slaves is right: as that which God permitted, recognized and commanded, cannot be inconsistent with his will.

ART. V.—HISTORICAL AND STATISTICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

I. THE PARISH OF ASSUMPTION.

[Our readers are aware we are engaged in the preparation of an elaborate report upon Louisiana, at the instance of the Legislature of the State, and that we have sent out a circular, soliciting information upon a great variety of points. This circular has been sent into every parish, and also was inserted in the May number of Commercial Review, 1850, p. 422. As yet it has produced but little fruit, though it is, to be hoped the citizens of the State will not disappoint us in our reasonable expectation of aid in preparing a work which will be greatly for the public weal.

If it were possible to get answers to our circular, from all the parishes, as fully and as minutely as the one we now present, and which was prepared for us, last year, by Mr. André Le Blanc, of Assumption, and for which he has our unfeigned gratitude, the greatest difficulty in the way of the report would be removed. Will not parish officers, members of the legislature and leading citizens, aid us in this manner. Their services will be acknowledged and their labors published in the pages of the Review, as well as in the final report.

As Mr. Le Blanc's contribution appears in a different language from that in which he wrote it, some unimportant points may have escaped the translator. We say this, in justice to Mr. Le Blanc, who has placed us under so many obligations.—Ed.]

The the first settlements in the parish of Assumption were made in the year 1784. The first inhabitants, of European origin, were emigrants from Nantz, in France, and four-fifth of the white population of the parish are their decendants. A few families from the Canary islands came afterward. The first immigration took place in 1782. There is now such a mixture, by intermarriages, of the first inhabitants, that it would be a difficult matter to establish a distinction between the two people. There are very few American or German families.

The condition of the first inhabitants was, generally, poor; but, hospitality and other virtues, which raise man to the rank he should have in all civilized society, were to be found every where.

The most ancient town is Napoleonville. It dates from 1835. The population is composed of 150 souls. Paincourville comes next; founded in 1836, with a population of 200 or 300. There are other situations, destined to establish towns, which have but the name: such as Vilaville, Chevritteville and Labadieville, where there are two or three houses.

The Indians, found in the country, were called Chatimachas. On Lac Verret was found the bust of a man, sculptured in stone, presumed to be a relic of theirs; also, mounds, which are still existing, where are found human bones, pieces of burnt clay, pieces of white stone shaped as lances, destined, perhaps, to be put at the ends of arrows. There are yet in the parish some roving Indians, but not of the tribe mentioned above; they are mostly Chattaws.

At the time France ceded Louisiana to Spain, a creole of the name of Darpit St. Amant opposed the new government. An order of arrest was issued against him; but, to hinder the Spanish officers, he placed a barrel of gunpowder before his door, and defied them to enter. They immediately retired, and at a little distance from Darpit's house, met a number of armed men, and to appease them had to promise that Darpit should be let alone. They, the inhabitants, agreed to return to their homes, but only on the written order of Darpit.

Nicolas Verret was the first commandant, appointed by the Spanish government, Villanueva, the second. Mithus was appointed the first parish judge, Bela Hubbard the second, when Louisiana was und [illegible] itorial

[illegible] .ige, when Louisiana was
[illegible] same Bela Hubbard was
[illegible] .las Pichot was the fifth
[illegible] with Robert C. Martin. The
[illegible] Cavillier. Since the new [illegible]
[illegible] shed, and recorders or archivists
[illegible] The duties that weigh [illegible]
[illegible] w divided among several persons:
[illegible] reform, and all works much better and

[illegible] H[illegible]ert was considered the most accom-
[illegible] was first ancient clerk in a notarial office,
[illegible] [illegible]ert, L'Abbe Bourg, Latiniste (quite dis-
[illegible] a certain Moreau, who died on Lac Ver-
[illegible] his arrival in the parish he retired from
[illegible] ars alone on Lac Verret, which was then
[illegible]

[illegible] has a large territory, cut up by bayous and
[illegible] principal lake is called lake Verret: next is
[illegible] The principal bayous are called bayou
[illegible] a, bayou Corne, bayou Pierre Part, bayou St.
[illegible] ayou Creux Blanc, des Attakapas, la Belle
[illegible] Maxile, bayou Bœuf, and other small bayous,
[illegible] all situated to the westward of bayou La-
[illegible] part of the parish you find bayou Choupic and
[illegible] of them, improved. Bayou Lafourche
[illegible] Two bridges are found in the parish; one on
[illegible] ar Napoleonville, and the other on the Grand
[illegible] ns of Joseph Mottere and W. L. Logie.
[illegible] a diversity of trees, shrubs, plants, etc., that
[illegible] not allow me to satisfy you, but I shall give,
[illegible] by which they are called in the country. We
[illegible] most precious. It grows as well on high as
[illegible] merous on lowlands. The highland cypress is
[illegible] r. It is generally used for building, fences,
[illegible] Several varieties of the oak; also, several
[illegible] the magnolia to the laurel, are used for culinary
[illegible] varieties of willow, the cotton wood, the birch, the
[illegible] am, the pecan tree, the acacia the hackberry,
[illegible] rry, the sassafras, whose root is used for tea,
[illegible] and pulverized, make the dish called gombo fillie.
[illegible] during the first establishment made in Louis-
[illegible] s, used in tea, was the only effectual remedy
[illegible] of fevers and other diseases, proceeding from
[illegible] and effluvia of newly-cleared lands: this
[illegible] the Indians.
[illegible] a great number of varieties of the wild onion

plant, which produces the same effects that mercury does, if the least particle is mashed under the teeth; the plantain, the three-quarter leaf, the fled grass, the wild sarsaparilla, the malo grass, the cuirage, the wild coffee, the worm root, the bardane or rogue's weed, the poke weed, the thistle, the pompier and coco grass, hay, the pisantlits, an exotic grass; the wild pea grows usually in low lands; the ninuphar, or aquatic grass; the wild rice, excellent fodder for cattle; the wild reed, the scrub grass, and a variety of others, too tedious to mention, are all indigenous to the country. The exotic plants are the tobacco, cotton, millet, sugar cane, corn, indigo, sweet potato, Irish potato, gourd, calabash, peas, a variety, beans also, and garden plants of all kinds.

The wild animals are the bear, panther, tiger, wild cat, raccoon, squirrel, deer, otter, muskrat, mink, mole, rabbit, etc. The birds are the partridge, redbird, blackbird, woodcock, crow, grosbec, picvers, woodpecker, crooked-bill, marsh hen, mocking bird, dove, nonpareil, remarkable for the beauty of its plumage; humming bird, malard, water hen, the bee sire, the dipper, the plover, the robin, the wild pigeon, the goose, the brant, the crane a variety, and the lark: mostly birds of passage. The insects are the musketo, the fly, the bumble bee, the wasp, the bee, bed bugs, fleas, red bugs, woodlice, butterflies of all colors, caterpillars, worms, etc., *ad infinitum.* The fish are catfish, casseburgo or sheep head, sardine, buffalo, stinger eels, sun fin, patassas, trout, flounder, grand ecaille, yellow catfish, choupic, mudcat, alligator gar and the sturgeon. The reptiles are the rattlesnake, the dart or spearsnake, the moccasin snake, the garter snake, the copper-head, lizards, vipers and congues—the bite is fatal, though some say we have had no instance of any accident of the kind here.

We have no rocks, nor mines, nor springs. The soil is generally heavy clay and sandy. The best water used is the bayou Lafourche. It is generally clarified with a little alum or peach kernels. Well water, in sandy lands, may be also used, and needs no clarification. It is sweeter than the water from the bayou Lafourche, but does not allay the thirst of those who are not used to it. The soil, on both sides of the bayou Lafourche, is the only one which varies in quality: it is a mixture of sand and clay. The clay is generally found in the points of the bayou and the sandy soil in the bends: the cause is attributable to the more or less strength of the current, it being stronger at the points than in the bends, which causes the deposit of sand. The encroachments made by the inhabitants on both sides of the bayou, before they were sufficiently raised by the desposits of the current, have compelled them to make levees to secure them from inundations when the bayou rises.

The principal cultures are the sugar cane, cotton, corn, rice and tobacco. Indigo is no more cultivated. Culture is brought to a high state of improvement, principally for the sugar cane. Few planters continue to plant cotton and rice, and then but in small quantities. Cotton was introduced when the first improvements were made in the country. The sugar cane has been cultivated, with advantage, since 1824 only. Previous to that time there were only two or three estates producing sugar, and barely enough to pay their expenses, notwithstanding the high price of sugar in those times. The cause of failure must be attributed to the culture of creole cane, the only quality then used, and which is very sensible to cold. Since the introduction of the ribbon cane and the abandonment of the old method of working with the hoe only, and adopting, with advantage, the plow, and win-rowing the cane as soon as it is touched with the first frost, the crop is generally considered certain. We owe, in a great measure, to the inhabitants of the Carolinas and Virginia, who have settled among us, the great improvements we have so far made in agriculture. As to fruits, we have in our parish, the peach a great variety; the fig, the orange, prunes, grenades, raisins, grapes, pecans and quinces.

The number of acres under cultivation in our parish, to this date, is 785 acres in cotton, 14,698 acres in sugar cane, 123 acres in rice, 15,095 acres in Indian corn. Number of acres not cultivated, 84,727.

The soil is very rich and productive. Cultivated in corn it is inexhaustible; but cane and cotton impoverishes it. After twenty or thirty years it needs manuring. The modus operandi for that object is simple. All we need is rotation—two years of peas, which are used as a precious fodder, and the third year the cane planted yields an abundant crop. Lands are valued according to their position. The price is from twenty to sixty dollars per acre.

A number of horses, cattle, mules and hogs, are raised in the parish. The States of Missouri and Tennessee furnish a certain quantity of the above, and of much larger size, but they are subject to diseases which ours are not. Timber of all kinds is in great quantity and is very good. Roads are very fine in summer but very bad in the winter. Our fences are generally made of cypress timber, on account of its durability and the facility of procuring it; a few planters use the oak rail, but its little wear compel them soon to adopt the custom of the country. Our artificial meadows are planted with peas, corn, oats and clover. Our natural meadows are composed of the following plants and grasses: scrub grass, deer grass, lucerne and a host of other plants.

The articles used as agricultural implements are plows of great variety and quantity; iron chains, hoes, spades, scythes, knives, carts, collars, harness, sugar-mills, kettles and steam-engines.

The carrying of produce, etc., is done by steam and sail boats. The navigation (inland) is very easy; nature has placed, in every direction, navigable bayous which need but little improvement.

There are a great many very old people in the parish. A man that arrives at the age of forty is sure to attain a very old age. Life is more precarious among the young people, on account of the excesses, of all kinds, of which they are fond. Births are more numerous than deaths: for example, in a family taken singly, composed of eight or ten children, one or two die; and the youngest has attained the age of sixty, which would make, taking all the families collectively, twenty per cent. of deaths only in sixty years, while in the most healthy countries of Europe, taking one hundred children, half are dead before they attain the age of fifty years. The most sickly months, for children particularly, are June, July and August. If the parents are particular in giving them vermifuges before this season, they are generally preserved from disease and from worms.

Old men die generally in winter, and are little exposed to the infirmities of old age; we have no gouty rheumatics, paralytics, dropsies, or any scrofulous diseases.

The white population of the parish is composed of 2,404 women, and 2,930 men, including children. We have 5,350 blacks; in all, 10,684 inhabitants, and 1,052 voters.

The value of the labor of the slaves is much less than that of the white and free man. The day's work of a slave is limited to a cord of wood, or an acre of ditching a foot and a half wide and one foot deep, or one acre of fencing, or a quarter of an acre of scraping, either cane or corn.

The white and freeman generally does double the above work, when it is for his own benefit. A white man will work fifteen acres of land, and the general rule is ten acres to the hand, for the slaves, able bodied men.

In regard to the manner, or mode, of making sugar and cultivating the sugar cane: the land is plowed up, early in the season, at every six, seven, or eight feet distance, if your land is either old or new—the greater the distance if the land is new; make a furrow, with the plow, three or four inches deep; the cane is then put in, length-ways, lapping them to one-third of their length; they are then covered over with the plow, if the land is moldy, otherwise with the hoe. So soon as the cane grows it is plowed as often as possible, being careful not to plow too near the cane, for fear of giving it any dirt, which is generally done not before the months of May, June or July, when the cane has well suckered, or thrown out its sprouts; then the cane is well provided with soil, to protect the roots from the winter. So soon as the cane is cut down, a furrow is run, on both sides of the row, to facilitate vegetation for the next season.

Plant cane is kept in mattresses; care is taken to make them in October; the plant cane should be of the best. If to be planted in old ground, the first year's cane should be used; if in new land, second year's rattoons should be used.

The time for planting is in January, February and March. In old lands the planting should be renewed every three years, and four years for new land. To succeed well in the culture of cane, the land should be well drained.

Different methods are used to make sugar. Some boil high, with a great deal of lime to make the sugar heavy, and others do quite the contrary—boil the sugar lightly, and with little lime, and obtain a sugar of finer quality. This last method seems to me the most reasonable, and the most lucrative, in as much as the quality is far superior and commands a better price in the market. There are other methods, lately introduced, but we are not yet acquainted with the results. The fact is, if we wished, we could make, and with very little expense, sugar as good as the Havanna; the method would be more complicated, but the quality of the sugar would pay well. The way would be, to have a certain quantity of molds, susc [illegible] twenty-five pounds of sugar; fill them up with sugar, highly boiled, [illegible] the time, then cover with moss and clay; draw the sugar out of the [illegible] after eight or ten days, and expose it to the air; then crush it, be- [illegible] to take off an inch or two of the end of the loaf, to have the [illegible] of the same quality; the sugar would be white, and would stand a [illegible] voyage well, and be fit to be used on the best tables.

The population of Assumption is generally Catholic; there are, however, a few Protestants. Very few persons are to be found who cannot read or write. The first inhabitants were better educated, and were better informed, than at present. There are, in the parish, three Catholic churches. The church of the Assumption, built of brick, and by the inhabitants; the church of St. Elizabeth, situated at Paincourtville, built of wood, and erected, in 1838, by the Catholics living on the western part of bayou La Fourche; the church of St Philomine, built in 1847, by the inhabitants of the lower part of the parish. There is, also, a Protestant church in Napoleonville, built in 1837; the clergy live by annual subscriptions, and the casuals of the church. The first burial took place in 1793; the man buried was called Lewis Blanchard.

COMMERCE.—The merchants sell, on credit, payable from March to March. There are twenty commercial houses that sell on these terms. There is much business done in trading for the produce. A great many peddlers hawk about, from house to house, exchanging goods for eggs, fowls, onions, sweet potatoes, &c.; one has no idea what a lucrative business it is; also the selling of bread, which is also made, and of a superior quality.

The importation, to the other States, is principally of sugar and molasses, which is more or less, according to the season; however, on an average, we can estimate the value of the above articles, for many years back, at a million of dollars annually exported from our parish.

We have no banks, railroads, insurance offices and interior improvements, nor have we any scientific societies. We have had, for the last twenty years, no capital crime to record, neither any degrading punishment to inflict. The inhabitants are very charitable, so much that any unhappy individual, who should lose his house by fire, could easily recover more than the amount, should he take the trouble of having a subscription list passed among the inhabitants of the parish. We have no charitable institution. The organization of the militia is very loose. No press in the parish, no public print of any kind. The parish taxes are applied, in part, to the education of the children of the indigent, and to succor the travelers, who should fall sick on some plantation, and who should be without any means; also for repairing public buildings.

The roads and levees need no public expense; every planter is bound, by the by-laws of the police jury, to repair the road and levee fronting his plantation. Our judicial expenses amount to three or four hundred dollars per annum. Neither the justices of the peace, nor the constables, can live with the emoluments of their offices. There are fourteen justices of the peace, and one constable can do all the business. There are, also, one district judge, a clerk, a sheriff, four auctioneers and a recorder, two lawyers and ten medical men, seven of the last having good practice.

Gales of wind are very rare, and not dangerous. Thunder is very frequent in the rainy season, during June, July and August, but occasions no harm to mention. We have to record only one meteorological phenomenon—a rain of fire, which happened in 1835, or '36, at four o'clock, A. M., in the month of November; so say several individuals. It happened in the rolling season, when part of the population are always up during the night, and could easily see it.

The climate is rather irregular. The sudden variations of the atmosphere cause indispositions, which are as suddenly cured. If a cool day gives a cold, the heat of the next day makes it disappear with the same promptitude. We have some very severe winters, and others so mild as not to injure, in the least, the most delicate plants. Our summers are by no means disagreeable, except in the rainy and stormy season; the heat then is suffocating, for a few hours, say from eleven o'clock A. M. to three o'clock P. M. It is not felt so much—laboring men are then off from their work.

We have no literary productions, nor any public records, nor any private ones. Though I have taken much pains, I never could find out if there existed, in the hands of any inhabitants of the parish, any books, papers, records, which relate, in any way, to the history of Louisiana, or the first settlements.

ART. VI.—SOUTHERN MEDICAL REPORTS.

GENERAL AND SPECIAL REPORTS ON THE MEDICAL TOPOGRAPHY, METEOROLOGY AND PREVALENT DISEASES, OF THE SOUTHERN STATES.

The works of *southern* men, upon subjects relative peculiarly to the *South*, are among the rarest productions of the day, and, as such, deserve the highest consideration from all who can credit that something good, by a possibility, may come out of Nazareth, and that the whole intellect of the nation is not, as of course, concentrated and intensified in the book makers and book mongers of the North. Not that we have any very great faith, either in the mere multiplication of commodities like these, or believe that such multiplication, in itself, presupposes a very high degree of literary advancement. The reverse is often the case, where letters degenerate into a trade, and the love of gain is found active in employing and *prostituting* the pens which, if occupied at all, should rather be in the diffusion of light and knowledge. This trade, as it were, of book making by machinery, of measuring literary composition, like calico, by the yard stick, and bartering for it on the rules of arithmetic, has not yet been learned by t and we rejoice that it has not. It is thus it may be true, but from a different reason from that which has been insultingly intimated by northern writers, that no one, in their latitude, ever reads a southern book! We have not asked for such patrons, or the miserable *gain* which their countenance could give, but have been content, unostentatiously, but sincerely and devotedly, to pursue science and letters for themselves, and their own rich reward; and, in enlarging their arena, have preferred to do it without the pomp and show of blustering authorship.

Notwithstanding this, however, we are always glad to see a *southern* book; and, in this instance, the pleasure is enhanced by the fact that the author is one of our own fellow citizens and immediate *personal* friends, and we have watched, from their very dawning, the progress of his labors, in a field struck out by himself and almost entirely new. In his restless energies and assiduities, his vigils by night, his enthusiasm and hopefulness, we have wished him, from our heart, success; and now, that the labor of the day is over, we would add, to those well wishes, congratulations the most genuine and unaffected.

The aim of Dr. Fenner, as we understand it, in the volume before us, and which will be continued *annually*, should sufficient encouragement offer, an event we sincerely trust will occur, is three-fold:

1. To induce a more close and rigid study of the diseases which are peculiar to the South, and which can seldom be understood by those who are not familiarly acquainted with the meteorological, topographical and hydrographical relations and conditions which subsist among us. The whole subject must be studied together, if studied thoroughly.

2. To provoke habits of greater research and industry among southern physicians, and afford a medium of communicating with each other, upon the highest branches of the profession, less ephemeral than the magazines of the day, and to stimulate these professional intercommunications.

3. To furnish the statesman, planter or citizen, with full statistics of the mortality of different sections, the tendencies to peculiar diseases, the probable and possible health ameliorations, and those general mortuary facts which come now to occupy an important place in the studies of political economists, municipal authorities, planters and legislators.

The plan is a wise and elevated one, and the question presents itself, Has the execution corresponded?

In justice to Dr. Fenner, we will say, there were innumerable perplexities and difficulties connected with the issue of his first volume, which prevent its being fairly considered a criterion of the merit which subsequent ones will possess. In the first place, the enterprise was novel, and the more enthusiastic an author is, at the outset, the more difficult will he, in general, find it to influence the coöperation of others. In the present case, this was strikingly illustrated, as we had occasion to know. Then there was too much haste in the composition and arrangement of matter, from an earnest desire to issue before the sitting of the National College of Physicians at Cincinnati, which precluded the appearance of contributions in progress, but not finished, and a vast accumulation of facts, in the portfolio of the editor, collected with pains, and intended for the pages of his work.

Yet, with all these obstacles, the result has been a large volume of valuable and interesting facts, which, though somewhat deficient in arrangement, are yet of a kind calculated to excite the attention of inquirers, and a number of elaborate communications, relating to the diseases and topography of different southern States and districts, from the pens of able and experienced physicians. With such a beginning, the most important results may be anticipated; and, from our knowledge of Dr. Fenner's habits, we may be allowed to say, there are few men so competent to perform the laborious, and, at the same time, peculiar duties he has assumed. Inquisitive by nature, patient, studious, enthusiastic, with an active and cultivated intelligence, he will never sleep at his post, nor desert it, while a ray of success shall illumine its horizon.

Our purpose now is, to give a hasty analysis of the different departments of the work, for the benefit of our readers, as well as to call more general attention to its merits; but, before doing so, we would hazard a few suggestions to the editor, which may not be unworthy of his consideration:

1. We recommend, hereafter, that more especial attention be devoted to the mortality, longevity, physical health, diseases, natural increase, etc., of the free negro and slave population of the South. Calling the attention of correspondents, in every quarter, to the subject, collecting and urging the collection of all facts and statistics, and so presenting them, in parallel tables, with the facts and statistics of the same kind collected from the North, as will enable correct deductions to be made. We have an idea that a volume of light exists here, in favor of the institution of slavery, which should influence the minds of the statesman and practical philanthropist. The South has, hitherto, neglected this source of information and illustration, and, we believe, it is in the power of Dr. Fenner to supply the defect.

2. We suggest a close and scrutinizing attention to the actual and comparative mortality of New Orleans, past and present, more partic-

ularly than to the other southern cities, that it may be discovered, if possible, how far the influences of climate are likely to operate adversely to its position as the great southern emporium. The lately published facts and figures, of Drs. Barton and Simonds, indicate a state of things most unfavorable to the city, and we should like to see the subject become one of especial study. The more that can be developed upon it, the better for the interests of the place. In this way, cities, that were very pest holes, have been relieved.

3. Let the subject of vital statistics, throughout all the southern States, have a prominent place. We are aware it is almost impossible to get the facts, since few of the cities have provided for their collection, and individuals have not felt sufficient interest. These facts would dissipate, it is thought, many erroneous impressions in regard to our climate, and greatly promote the general advances of our population. The general institution of registers of births, marriages and deaths, should, at all times, be urged upon the legislators of the country, and fortified by such arguments, and illustrations, as will present themselves to any one cognizant of the labors of statisticians in Europe, and the happy results of them, in improving and extending the average of human life, health and comfort.

4. And, finally—though we know not on what principle to recommend it, unless on that of Dr. Cartwright, that crime is disease (at least he says, perhaps facetiously, that *rascality*, in negroes, may be cured by medicine)—could not the editor furnish the digested returns of public prisons, penitentiaries, pauper houses, as well as hospitals, that they may be compared with those of other communities?

We take up, in order, the Louisiana portion of the reports. The first is the editor's, and discusses the topography and meteorology of New Orleans and diseases of 1849. Each month has its appropriate place. Upon the subject of prisons and asylums it is said, "there is a remarkable fact connected with their sanitary condition, viz.: that the inmates suffer less from the prevailing diseases, such as yellow fever, cholera and the like, than any other persons in the city. The prisons are situated on the outskirts of the city, which, we should suppose, were the most unhealthy localities, and the only striking difference between the living of the inmates and the citizens at large, consists in the regularity and temperance of their habits and their seclusion from the direct rays of the sun." Dr. Barton's remark, "There is no proper rainy season in New Orleans," is made the ground of a discussion, in which many valuable meteorological tables are introduced. It appears that in the ten years, 1840 to 1850, the quantity of rain which fell at New Orleans was 696,329 inches, an average of 69,632 annually. The fall of rain, according to seasons, on the average, was:

In Spring,	156,695	inches.
" Summer,	239,785	"
" Autumn,	117,010	"
" Winter,	182,658	"

The summer being the wettest season during six years, the winter during three, and the spring during one. The conclusion is, "there are two rainy seasons in New Orleans, the winter and summer." To our mind, however, Dr. Barton is sufficiently correct for all practical purposes. From the tables furnished we compile one, showing the temperature of New Orleans for ten years, *mean* Fahrenheit:

	Spring.	*Summer.*	*Autumn.*	*Winter.*
1840,	74.3	84.4	71.3	57.2
1841,	71.4	83.9	71.4	56.9
1842,	73.0	82.3	70.0	56.9
1843,	68.5	82.0	73.8	56.7
1844,	72.6	83.7	72.2	58.3
1845,	70.3	82.3	67.9	53.3
1846,	75.4	80.3	73.4	56.2
1847,	69.8	87.7	70.6	53.5
1848,	69.7	82.3	72.2	56.6
1849,	74.9	83.0	70.6	58.6

In 1840 and 1846 there was no yellow fever; 1842 and 1849, mild; 1843, 1844, 1846 and 1848, moderate epidemic; 1841 and 1847, severe epidemic.

Paper second, is an interesting account of the inundation of New Orleans in 1816, which resembles, in many respects, that of 1849. The crevasse broke at McCarty's plantation, six miles from the city, on Monday, 6th May, and by the following Wednesday, the newspaper account states:

"Yesterday, all Rampart street and the squares between Bienville and Canal, nearly as far as Dauphine street, were under water. At this time, the lower parts of the suburbs Montegue, Lacourse, St. Mary, Marigny, with the whole suburbs Gravier, Trémé and St. John, are under water. You may go in a boat from Chartres, down Canal to Dauphine street, then down Bienville to Burgundy street; from which point, descending St. Louis street to Rampart, you may proceed toward the lower suburbs and again reach Dauphine street, at its intersection by the public walk." On the 25th May, the paper adds: "Old authorities recount three inundations here. One in 1785 and another in 1791. There was not a greater mortality in those two years than usual. A third occurred in 1799. There died this year more or less, but not in consequence of the inundation." The same remarks apply to the flood of 1849. On the 7th June, 1816, the waters had retired from the city and the summer continued very

Professor Forshey contributes a chapter upon the hydrography of the Mississippi river, which, perhaps, has some relation to the medical condition of the country. It is illustrated with several large and valuable diagrams and charts, and furnishes the best account of the crevasse of 1849 (Sauvés) we have ever met with. On the 30th May the water reached its maximum.

> "Its boundary line was in Carrollton up to Fourth street, above Canal avenue, and thence along Third street to the Greenville line, where it came up to near the railroad. Thence to the upper line of Bouligny, it kept about three squares from the railroad; through Bouligny to Freeport to the line of Lafayette, the rails were under six inches in the deepest part. Keeping in the rear of the Apollo street high grounds, it crossed Felicity road, between Bacchus and Dryades street, and crossed Triton walk at Phillippa, Poydras at Baronne street, and reached Canal street, between Carondelet and St. Charles. It came into the gutters on Dauphine down to St. Louis, and thence stretched diagonally to the old Basin, on St. Peter street. All the cemeteries were deep under water, so that interments were made chiefly at Cypress Grove. About 220 inhabited squares were flooded, more than 2,000 tenements surrounded by water, and a population of near 12,000 souls, either driven from their homes or living an aquatic life of much privation and suffering. What an active benevolence, and the aid of municipal charity, could do, was done to relieve the distressed. It is too late now to inquire whether a more judicious investment of authority and effort to close the crevasse, would not have rendered both nearly unnecessary. The loss to the city in various ways was incalculable; and as yet nothing was done to remove the cause."

We have not time to go more at length into Mr. Forshey's paper, nor is it necessary, considering how much we have published upon the subject from him and from other sources. His table of high water marks is especially interesting. We learn from it, the river reached the highest known limit opposite Natchez in 1815, and was nearly at that point in 1813 and 1823. In 1811, it was the highest in forty years. The mean highest point, for thirty years, is about the 1st May; the mean lowest, the 1st October. In 1849, the highest was 14th March, the lowest 9th October. The highest point of the Levee at New Orleans is fifteen feet higher than the basin and swamp, Levee street is about twelve feet higher, Chartres eleven, Royal ten, Bourbon nine, Dauphine eight, Burgundy seven, Rampart six, etc.

The fourth paper, embraces the valuable meteorological and mortuary report of Dr. Barton of the New Orleans Board of Health, 1849, which we have already analyzed and examined in full.

The fifth paper, is a contribution from the editor on the fevers of New Orleans, and especially the yellow fever of 1849, in which is furnished many elaborate tables, illustrating and enforcing a theory of his, which he has adopted and clings to with much pertinacity and great show of reason, viz.: that yellow fever is only one of the forms of endemic fever, malarious if you will, which derives its characteristic features for the locality and attendant circumstances where it prevails, and that yellow fever cannot be classed properly among epidemics, if there be any strict and real distinction in the meaning of terms. We are glad to learn, that Dr. Fenner, having collected many reports on the early epidemics and fevers of the city, will, before long, give to the profession a "history of yellow fever in the valley of the Mississippi."

The sixth paper, digests all the reports of the New Orleans Charity Hospital for many years, and is by Dr. Simonds, one of the most intelligent and laborious medical statisticians of the South. We have had occasion before to dissent from some of his conclusions, and intend more fully, hereafter, to examine and present the tables contributed by him on the same subject, to the Medical Convention and the New Orleans papers.

Dr. Fenner follows with two very elaborate and studied articles upon the epidemic cholera in New Orleans, 1848–'49, and the epidemic colic of 1849. These are valuable for the minute history furnished of the progress of these diseases and the various and conflicting modes of treatment adopted. On the subject of colic, the opinion is intimated, it may result from the leaden pipes used in conveying water through the city. The water of the various soda fountains was analyzed by the writer to trace the presence of this lead, in almost every instance with success. It is generally said that chlorides and sulphates will prevent the action of water upon lead, but Dr. Riddell thinks there is not a sufficiency of these salts in the Mississippi to prevent such action.

Of the other papers on Louisiana, in regard to the parishes, the various asylums and hospitals of the city, etc., we have not time to notice. One of these, by Dr. Booth, on the cholera of Lafourche, is a philosophical and elegant production, doing great honor to the author, who is still but a young man, and must continue to win golden laurels in his profession. His description of the cholera at Bishop Polk's plantation, does not equal the reality, as we can speak from personal knowledge, having been on a visit there at the time and suffered something like an attack of the fell scourge ourselves.

The remainder of the volume, about one-half, is occupied with reports from the States of Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, Tennessee, South Carolina and Texas—from those of Dr. Bassett upon Huntsville and its vicinity, Dr. Pendleton on Georgia, and Dr. Ketchum on the mortuary statistics of Mobile, we shall extract some valuable matters in the next number of the Review. It is impossible for us to do justice to them now. We must also omit any notice of the excerpts and miscellanies, the notices of medical colleges and medical publications, appended at the end of the volume.

May Dr. Fenner find, from the evidences of public favor which shall crown his labors, that he has performed a good work, and one which will add materially to his professional reputation and fortunes.

ART. VII.—SUBMERGED LANDS.

WHICH IS THE BEST AND CHEAPEST METHOD OF RECLAIMING THE SUBMERGED LANDS OF LOUISIANA?

Several plans have been suggested. One is to straighten the river, and so increase the velocity as to enable the current to dig out a channel sufficient to discharge the waters brought in by its numerous tributaries.

Another is to open new outlets into lake Pontchartrain, and thus discharge the water.

Another is to make embankments of sufficient hight and strength to confine all the water within the channel, and thus prevent overflow.

Professor Robinson, in his able treatise on mechanical philosophy, has deduced, from numerous experiments, made at great labor and expense, by men of practical science, a "Theory of Rivers," which reduces the whole question to a very simple proposition.

He says: "We learn, from observation, that a velocity of three inches per second, at the bottom, will just begin to work upon fine clay, fit for pottery, and, however firm and compact it may be, will tear it up: yet no beds are more stable than clay, when the velocities do not exceed this; for the water soon takes away the impalpable particles of fine clay, leaving the particles of sand, sticking by their lower half, in the rest of the clay, which they now protect, making a permanent bottom, if the stream does not bring down gravel or coarse sand, which will rub off this very thin crust, and allow another layer to be worn off. A velocity of six will lift fine sand; eight will lift sand as coarse as linseed; twelve inches will roll along fine gravel, twenty-four inches will roll along round pebbles an inch in diameter, and it requires three feet per second, at the bottom, to sweep along shivery angular stones, the size of an egg. See p. 466, vol. ii.

We learn, from the same authority, that the velocity of a current depends upon certain fixed laws, which have, in like manner, been ascertained by numerous experiments. He tells us, page 452, on the authority of Mr. Watt, that a canal, eighteen feet wide on the surface, seven feet at bottom, and four feet deep, with a slope of four inches in a mile, has a velocity of seventeen inches per second on the surface, ten at bottom and fourteen in the middle. On the next page he tells us that the velocity of the Po Grande, whose breadth is seven hundred and fifty-nine feet, and depth thirty-one feet, with a declivity of six inches per mile, is thirty-one inches per second, and that the current of the Rheno, whose breadth is one hundred and eighty-nine feet, and depth nine feet, with a declivity of fifteen inches in the mile, is forty-four inches per second.

He shows that the velocity of the current is continued, on a smaller slope, as the rivers, increased by the addition of tributary streams, approach the sea. This continued velocity he terms the "energy of deep waters;" and, on pages 476, 477, says:

"We have seen in what this energy consists; it is only a greater quantity of motion, remaining in the middle of a great stream, after a quantity has been retarded by the sides and bottom; and we clearly see that, since the addition of a new, and, perhaps, an equal stream, does not occupy a bed of double surface, the proportion of the retardations to the remaining motion must continually diminish as the river increases by the addition of new streams. If, therefore, the slope were not diminished, the regimen would be destroyed, and the river would dig up its channel. We have a full confirmation of this, in the many works that have been executed on the Po, which runs with rapidity through a rich and yielding soil. About the year 1600 the waters of the Panaro, a very considerable river, were added to the Po Grande, and, although it brings along with its freshes a vast quantity of sand and mud, it has greatly deepened the whole Tronco di Venezia from its confluence to the sea. This point was clearly ascertained by Manfredi, about the year 1720, when the inhabitants of the valleys adjacent were alarmed by the project of bringing in the waters of the Rheno, which then ran through the Fenarese. Their fears were overcome, and the Po Grande continues to deepen its channel every day, with a prodigious advantage to navigation; and there are several extensive marshes which now drain off by it, after having been for ages under water; and it is to be particularly remarked, that the Rheno is the foulest river, in its freshes, of any in that country."

Professor Robinson adds: "We insert this remark because it may be of great practical utility, as pointing out a method of preserving, and even improving, the depths of rivers, or drains, in flat countries, which is not obvious, and rather appear improper; but it is strictly conformable to a true theory, and the operations of nature, which never fail to adjust everything, so as to bring about an equilibrium."

It will be seen that this "theory" applies to the Mississippi river. In its character it is like the Po, and it follows, that, as the effect of the introduction of two additional rivers, of nearly equal volume, has been to deepen the channel of the Po, greatly for the advantage of navigation, and that, instead of causing it to overflow its banks, it has drained off large marshes, which had been, for ages, under water; so, instead of causing it to overflow embankments confining its waters within its channel, would cause the Mississippi to increase its energy, and thus deepen its bed.

From the mouth of the Ohio to the Balize is a continuous delta, exhibiting the same phenomena which is fully explained by Professor Robinson's theory. It requires a velocity of eight to twelve inches per second to lift and take along coarse sand, whereas a velocity of three inches will lift and carry forward fine clay; thus, as the river approaches the sea, and the velocity of the current is diminished, the coarser particles, held in suspension, are deposited, and the lighter clay is carried forward to the gulf. As the whole delta has been reclaimed from the ocean by the same process, it follows that the lower part of the formation, that is, the particles carried forward to the gulf and deposited, from the bottom to the surface of the water, are chiefly particles of fine clay; and hence we find that the soil, at and below New Orleans, is made of fine, impalpable particles of clay, because, in obedience to a fixed law, the river has deposited the sand and heavier particles above, carrying forward the lighter clay to the gulf. We can now well see why it is that the channel is not more than twelve or eighteen feet deep at the Balize, and not more than ten or twelve at the mouth of the Ohio, and yet is more than two hundred feet deep from Fort Jackson to New Orleans. At the Balize the current is arrested by the waters of the gulf, and the velocity is not sufficient to lift the fine particles of clay deposited in the bed. At the mouth of the Ohio, and above, the velocity is such that it sweeps along coarse sand, which is deposited before it reaches New Orleans, where the current, although the velocity is not sufficient to take along coarse sand, has the power to lift and carry forward the fine, impalpable particles of clay, which constitute the whole bed of the river at and below the city.

These principles being established, it follows that, if we straighten the river, the velocity will be so much increased that the current must bring down great bodies of coarse sand, which will be deposited in the channel, which, in the first place, would be cut down much below what it now is, and then filled up by the large deposit of heavy sand brought from above, the effect would be to divert the channel into the softer material, on one or the other side of the river, which, in obedience to the laws that govern its course, would cut for itself a meandering bed. It is, therefore, impossible to confine the river within a straight channel: and if it were possible, the current would be so rapid as to prevent its navigation until it brings down so large a deposit of coarse sand as to elevate the bed, so as to give the channel a meandering course. The same results would, in a corresponding degree, be produced by opening one or more outlets into the lake above New Orleans. The volume of water which is now discharged into the gulf, through a channel of one hundred and sixty miles in length, would, in that case, be discharged into the lake, on the same level with the gulf, through a channel of five miles in length, and there would necessarily be a corresponding increased velocity. This new channel would be made through the deposits of fine clay, similar, in all respects, to the fine clay which constitutes the bed of the river at and below New Orleans; and it requires no argument to show that, if the current, with its present velocity, has dug a channel two hundred feet deep at New Orleans, the power of the current, in the new channel, would be such as to turn the whole river into lake Pontchartrain. In that case, the present bed of the river, below the outlet, would soon become a lake, and the communication between New Orleans and the Mississippi river, and between New Orleans and the sea, be cut off by the filling up of both ends of that great lake.

So much, as to the effect to be produced on the city of New Orleans by a new outlet. It remains for us to see what effect this new outlet would have on the channel. As the land rises above the waters of the gulf, it produces, first, grass, then a growth of cane and willows; as we proceed up the river we find cane, and large trees and under-brush, with, in many places, a thick growth of rushes; the grass, rushes, cane and undergrowth, lining the shores of the river, act as filterers, and, by arresting the flow of the current, causes whatever is held in suspension to be deposited at, or near, the bank of the river. At the mouth the deposit is fine clay, further up it is coarse sand.

This deposit, thus made, has raised the banks of the river, whilst that which lies back from it, remains as it was first formed, slightly increased by the deposit of the light particles borne by the overflowing water through the vegetable filterers on or near the banks. We have seen that a velocity of eight inches per second will lift coarse sand—we know that as the current, acting under like circumstances, produces the like effect, the time must have been when the bed of the river at New Madrid was as deep as it is now at New Orleans, yet it is not now, in low water, more than an average of ten feet at and above New Madrid, whilst it is near or quite two hundred feet deep at and below New Orleans, and we now see why this is so; the strong current from above has brought down so much coarse sand as to fill up the bed of the river once as deep at New Madrid as it now is at New Orleans, by filling up the channel with sand so coarse as to resist its further action; each successive overflow has carried the coarser sand and lighter clay into the back lands, until they too have been elevated in a corresponding degree. It follows, that, if we open an outlet into the lake, and thus produce a corresponding increased velocity in the current above, the river will dig out its bed, and bring down large deposits of coarse sand, filling up the lake first, and then the bed of the river, until it will have established for itself precisely the same regimen that it now has—when it will overflow its banks precisely as it now does. It follows, that opening a new outlet is a temporary expedient, which, by increasing the velocity of the current, will bring down the coarse sand much more rapidly and thus fill up the bed of the river with a permanent material, when the overflow will be as great as it now is, *unless the current, driven by the resistance of this heavy sand, deposited in the channel, shall cut for itself new beds in the lighter clay*. In that case the river will resume a meandering course and no one can tell where it may go.

It remains for us to see what the effect of embankments will be, and here the facts cited by Professor Robinson, that the addition of two streams of nearly equal volume (one in 1600 and the other 1720), instead of filling up the bed or causing it to overflow its banks, has deepened the channel of the Po, and drained large marshes which had been for ages under water, seems to be conclusive; but a matter of so much importance, affecting the interests of so many individuals, should be carefully examined in all its bearings.

We have seen that Professor Robinson's "Theory of Rivers" rests upon a few fixed, known laws; we know that the overflow depends upon the capacity of the channel; we have seen that the channel, at New Madrid, which was once two hundred, is now but ten feet deep in low water, and we now know that this channel has been reduced to ten feet by heavy sand brought from above by an increased velocity of the current, and it requires no argument to show that, as the channel of the river from the mouth of the Ohio to the Balize is one inclined plane, and the velocity of the current depends upon the declivity, that velocity must be increased if we diminish the length of the plane, and that there will be a corresponding diminished velocity if we increase the length of the plane. To open an outlet above New Orleans would diminish the length of the plane, and, by increasing the velocity, bring down the heavy sands now deposited in the upper part of the river; whereas, by elevating the banks and confining the whole volume within the same channel, we would increase the length of the plane and at the same time enable the current to cut out for itself a deeper channel, and by arresting the velocity of the current above, cause the heavy sands to be deposited sooner than they now are, thus arresting the present process of filling up the upper bed of the river at the same time that we deepen its channel; which accounts for the striking facts, cited by Professor Robinson, that the Po, increased by two additional streams of nearly equal volume, each bringing down large quantities of sand and mud, has continued, for more than one hundred years, to deepen its channel, and has drained off large marshes which had been for ages under water.

The next question to be considered, if we elevate the banks so as to confine all the water within the channel, is, from whence we are to obtain the earth? for we know that the river establishes for itself a regimen, and that a very slight disturbance of the bank may cause an alteration in the current sweeping away large tracts of land. We have a ready answer to this question. The river is constantly bringing down deposits of sand and clay, which may be raised by machinery, driven by powerful steam-engines, and, by a process which I have patented, carried at very little cost to the place where it is to be deposited, and this process has this advantage, that its capacity is equal to any power of steam which may be used.

DUFF GREEN.

ART. VIII.—MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

REMARKS ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI—CUT-OFFS.

There appears to be an impression on the minds of many, that a cut-off, made through the narrow neck which separates two bends of a river, to shorten by straightening its course, increases the danger of overflow by the accumulation of water in the reach below, supposed to be caused by the too rapid influx of the water from above through the new channel.

This impression is incorrect, entirely unsupported by the authority of experience, and can only be attributed to the difficulty, which most persons find, in arriving at a clear comprehension of the plainest principles of a science with which they have had neither the opportunity, nor the leisure, to become acquainted. Cut-offs have been too often resorted to as an improvement, and with complete success, to permit such an objection to retain any weight.

It will be readily admitted that a straight course of a river, and of proper breadth, by admitting a greater and more uniform velocity, and offering less resistance to the water, causes, all other things being equal, a regular, unchangeable channel; while the winding course, having the line of the current, and greatest depth at the concave bank by producing abrasion of the same, offering increased resistance, and thereby checking the velocity, causes an irregular and continually changing channel. The object of a cut-off is to produce the former, and avoid the latter effect. It sometimes becomes absolutely necessary to resort to a cut-off, in order to relieve the reach above from inundations, which are caused, in time of flood, by the accumulated water, kept back by the obstructions to the free discharge in the channel round the bend.

A cut-off cannot be injurious to a river, if made judiciously, and in accordance to the course of the upper and lower reach of the river. It cannot increase the danger of overflows, for many reasons:

The quantity of water, discharged by a cut-off into the reach below, is just the same that it had previously received round the bend, and, though it may enter with an increased velocity, it soon communicates a share of that velocity to the water there, which, unless kept back by some obstruction in front, will hasten to seek its level further down.

The fall of the surface of the water in the reach below, of course, is not affected by the cut-off. That still remains the same, and, therefore, retains the same power to relieve itself that it had before.

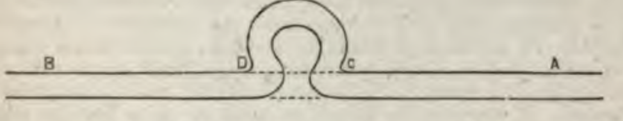
The quantity of water remaining the same, and the fall not being altered, the transporting power of the current is certainly not diminished, but, on the contrary, increased by the additional impulse, communicated to it by the more rapid influx through the cut-off. An elevation of the bed cannot, therefore, take place, to produce a greater vertical rise of the surface.

The height of the surface of the water, in a river, is generally affected by the character of the channel through which it flows. Where the river is obstructed in its course by a bend, or a sudden contraction of the channel, not having sufficient vent, and the velocity being checked by the obstacle in front, the water accumulates above, and its surface rises above its ordinary height. On the other hand, where the channel is open and clear, with no obstacle in front to check the current, it would require an extraordinary influx from above to cause even a slight rise in the surface of the river; for the increased velocity, communicated to the water below by the high water from above, increases the scouring power, deepens its channel, and causes it to run off too rapidly to admit of its rising very high. Hence it is, that the impulse given to the water in the reach below, by the increased velocity of the influx from a cut-off, is sufficient to deepen the channel and preserve a uniform inclination of the surface of the water.

For these reasons, therefore, I contend, that there can be no injurious effects produced on the channel of a river by a cut-off, properly made, nor can the danger of overflow be increased. On the contrary, the effects produced are altogether of a useful and beneficial character.

The reverse of this plain and simple principle has been again, and recently, urged as right; and the assertion reiterated, that a cut-off serves only to relieve the upper lands by submerging the lower. That this is an error needs little demonstration.

A bend, in any river, must check the velocity of its current, by the obstacles it throws in its way; and, to overcome these, requires a greater head, or rise, in the waters above. But a cut-off, which affords a free vent for the water, will discharge the same quantity at its lower cross-section, where it meets the main river again, as at the upper end, with this self-evident advantage, that it requires no extra swell, or elevation of the water above, to force it.



For instance: if bend *C E D* were formed in a straight river, *A B*, which discharges a certain quantity per second, its operation must be a decrease in the current, and consequent elevation of the water above the bend, to produce the required velocity, and its removal could not, certainly, change the water surface at *D*, the natural channel above and below the bend being the same.

What is true of a bend, is equally so of a dam, placed across a river; it elevates the surface of the water above, subjects the lands to floods, unknown before, and decreases the current. By removing this dam we relieve the country above, but certainly cannot submerge that below; unless the removal is done suddenly, during very high water, when the river above is unusually swollen.

It is, therefore, utterly erroneous to suppose the Red river and Raccourci cut-offs can have produced the results attributed to them, or have gratuitously aided mistaken seers, by fulfilling false and impossible prophesies.

As the water accumulates in the channel of a river, and its surface rises, filtration, which is so injurious to the fertility of the adjacent lands, increases also. Whatever, therefore, tends to give a free vent to the water, increases its velocity and deepens its channel, must, also, tend to lower its surface and diminish filtration; and, consequently, not only lessens the danger of overflow, but is otherwise highly beneficial to the lands along its banks.

The more winding the course of a river is, the more irregular and liable to continual change is the channel; for the current is ever washing away the concave bank of its curves, and depositing its materials along its bed. The more direct and uniform breadth the course of a river is, the less resistance does it offer to the current, and the more uniform is its velocity, and the more regular and less liable to change is its channel.

The fact that a river sometimes makes a cut-off through the narrow neck which separates the two bends, and thereby returns to its more natural course from which some accidental obstruction first caused it to deviate, is a sufficient proof that they cannot, of themselves, be injurious; for such cut-offs are attended by no evil consequences, except such as may arise from their being made in time of flood by nature, and the river not being judiciously guided in its operation by the aid of man.

If made at once in time of flood to its full cross-section, when the river above is filled with an unusual accumulation of water, it is very possible that the sudden influx of so large a body of water coming upon the reach below with an increased velocity, may be productive of some temporary, though serious, damage. But if made during the low stage of the river, no possible injury could arise from it—but, on the contrary, much benefit. It would leave full time to prepare the new channel before the time of high water, so that when it did come, the river would find a deeper channel, a freer vent, and an increased velocity to relieve it from the volume of water coming down from above, to prevent its accumulation and to remove all danger of overflow in the reach above and render it utterly impossible in that below.

Much also depends upon the way in which the cut-off is made. If it be made with so little regard to the object sought to be accomplished, as, for instance, to cause it to make a considerable angle with the reach below the same evil intended to be removed would soon re-appear. The current from the cut-off rushing against the opposite bank would continually wash away its materials and at once commence the formation of a new bend. The velocity of the current would be checked, and the water finding no freer vent than before, would accumulate in the reach above and still expose the adjacent country to the danger of overflow and the banks below to destruction. If, however, the cut-off be made so as to form as nearly as possible a straight line with the reach below and above, the object intended would be accomplished, the check imposed upon the waters above by the bend would be removed, a free vent would be opened for their more rapid passage, all danger of an overflow above at an end, and the mischief arising from filtration considerably diminished.

There are two other objections made to cut-offs, which require but a brief notice.

1. Cut-offs, by shortening and straightening the channel of a river, increase its fall in the same distance and thereby add to its velocity, so as to interfere with its navigation.

2. The materials which the river washes down, when it makes the cut-off, accumulate in the reach below and form shoals.

The character of the Mississippi gives a complete answer to these objections and renders them entirely invalid. In the first place, from the point where the danger of overflow begins to the mouth of the river, within which distance alone cut-offs may be considered necessary, the fall is comparatively very slight and gradual—the country being elevated only a few feet above the level of the gulf. Such being the fact, no cut-off made within that distance could interfere seriously, if at all, with the navigation. In the second place, the bed of the Mississippi within the same distance being composed of light, alluvial soil, the more direct and regular the channel is made, and the more the velocity of the current is increased, the less danger is there of the formation of shoals or change in the bed of the river. Shoals or bars are most generally found where the current crosses from one concave bank to another, above and below islands, or where the the breadth of the river is great, but never in a straight reach of proper breadth.

From the foregoing we may draw the following inferences:

That cut-offs improve not only that part of the river where they are judiciously executed, but operate very beneficially throughout its whole course—their tendency being to accelerate the discharge of water, thereby lowering the bed and surface of the river and preventing deposits of the heavy materials which the river brings from above, and that they reduce the floods in height and render them of shorter duration, while they greatly diminish filtration. ALBERT STEIN.

Mobile, July, 1850.

ART. IX.—PROGRESS OF THE SOUTH AND WEST.

1. CHARLESTON, S. C.*

ITS HISTORY, TRADE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS, EDUCATION, HEALTH STATISTICS, ETC.

The late official publication, by the city council of Charleston, edited by Drs. Dawson and Dessausure, to which we have, on one or two occasions, referred, contains a mass of information, in regard to the population and resources of that city, never before collected, and of inestimable value. We shall present to our readers a digest of the most important contents of the volume, regretting, at the same time, that its authors did not go more fully into those comparisons with other cities, and of epoch and epoch, which are among the chief sources of value in these census records. Mere tables have but little importance. The work is, also, more incomplete than a city like Charleston should have furnished, as we particularly note under "crimes," and under "education," "taxes," "expenses of civil administration," "valuation of property," "capital," etc., though of greatest value, have hardly been touched. We also object to a want of independence in following, so minutely, the outline and plan, and even the defects, of Mr. Shattuck's Boston census. At the same time, the many striking merits and great labor of the undertaking, are readily acknowledged, and we have been pressing upon our municipal authorities the importance of a similar publication here, with some hope, at last, of success.

TABLE OF POPULATION.

		INCREASE OR DECREASE.		INCREASE OR DECREASE PER CENT.	
Years.	*White population.*	*Total.*	*Annual.*	*Total.*	*Annual.*
1790,	8,089				
1800,	9,630	1,541	154.1	19.17	1.91
1810,	11,568	1,938	193.8	20.12	2.01
1820,	10,653	505 dec.	50.5 dec.	4.36 dec.	.43 dec.
1830,	12,828	2,175	217.5	20.41	2.04
1840,	13,030	202	20.2	1.57	.15
1848,	14,187	1,157	115.7	8.87	.88
	SLAVES AND FREE COLORED.				
1790,	8,270				
1800,	10,843	2,573	257.3	31.11	3.11
1810,	13,143	2,300	230	21.11	2.11
1820,	14,127	984	98.4	7.48	.74
1830,	17,461	3,334	333.4	23.60	2.36
1840,	16,231	1,230 dec.	123 dec.	7.04 dec.	.70 dec.
1848,	12,264	3,967 dec.	396.7 dec.	24.44 dec.	2.44 dec.

The tables show that the largest portion of the population is native, being 58 per cent.; the proportion of foreigners slightly exceeds those born in the United States—but out of Charleston. In Boston, the native born are but 35.92 per cent., and of foreign birth, 23.70 per cent In Charleston, 17 per cent. of foreign population were not *naturalized*. The white male population of the city has always exceeded the female, except in 1820 and 1830. The reverse is the case in the colored population. The productive class, or those between fifteen and sixty, in Charleston, is as favorably shown, as in the other American cities, except Lowell.

The number of dwelling houses in the city in 1820, was 2,336; in 1830, 2,481; in 1840, 2,804; in 1848, 3,147; of which 358 are stores wholly. The following table exhibits a state of things highly prosperous in Charleston:

DWELLING HOUSES.

Class of Houses.	*Owned by occupant.*	*Number of families.*	*Not owned by occupant.*	*Number of families.*	*Total houses.*	*Total families.*
Inhabited by one family,	784	784	1,482	1,482	2,266	2.266
" " two "	65	130	235	470	300	600
" " three "	12	36	53	159	65	195

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* The reader will find, in our first eight volumes, a great many articles upon Charleston, prepared with much care.

Inhabited by four fam's, ...	0	0	26	104	26	104
" " five "	0	0	5	25	5	25
" " six "	1	6	1	6	2	12
" " eight "	0	0	1	8	1	8
" " ten "	0	0	1	10	1	10
Total, ...	862	956	1,804	2,264	2,666	3,220

The water in Charleston is bad, which makes cisterns generally resorted to. In periods of drought, and when these fail, things are in no enviable state, and fierce conflagrations sometimes rule. An artesian well was attempted in 1823. In 1847 another was bored, 323 feet, and abandoned for want of success. It has been re-commenced, but with what prospects we have not learned.

CLASSES OF POPULATION.

The following table exhibits the number and proportions of the different classes. The unmarried men, over fifteen, were 2,571, or 1 in 5.5 of the whole population; the married 2,053, or 1 in 6.9; and the widowers 180, or 1 in 787. The unmarried women, over fifteen, were 1,760, or 1 in 80 of the whole population; the married 2,119, or 1 in 6.6; and the widowed 887, or 1 in 16:

		MALES.		FEMALES.		BOTH.	
Ages.	*Condition.*	*Number.*	*In each* 100.	*Number.*	*In each* 100.	*Number.*	*In each* 100.
Over 15,	unmarried, ...	2.571	53.51	1,760	37.60	4,331	44.14
" "	married, ...	2,053	42.74	2,119	44.56	4,172	43.54
" "	widowed, ...	180	3.75	877	18.44	1,057	11.05
15 to 60,	unmarried, ...	2,515	5236	1,690	35.53	4,205	43.98
" "	married, ...	1,910	39.76	2,067	43.25	3,977	41.60
" "	widowed, ...	117	2.43	584	12.27	701	7.34
Over 60,	unmarried, ...	56	1.16	70	1.47	126	1.31
" "	married, ...	143	2.97	52	1.09	195	2.09
" "	widowed, ...	63	1.31	293	6.13	356	3.72

The excess of widows over the widowers is very large, being 887 of the former to 180 of the latter. This, however, does not appear to be peculiar to Charleston, as will appear from Mr. Shattuck's census of Boston.

The tables of PAUPERS show that the expense of supporting them has diminished from $100,707.34, for the five years ending 1823, to $38,789.37 in the same period, ending 1849, while the difference in the number has varied little. The labor of these people, employed upon cracking stones for street paving, almost pays the entire expense of their maintenance.

EDUCATION.

The list of free school pupils is 394, amount expended for them $3,900, average to scholar $10, average attendance five years. These are valuable schools, but they are scarcely adequate to the wants of the city. Private teachers, however, abound. There is an admirable high school, established in 1839, with an average of 130 to 150 scholars. It is endowed with $1,000 per annum, for a hundred years, by council. There are several public libraries in Charleston—the Apprentices', with a fine hall; the Mercantile, and the Charleston Library Society—the last named being the oldest and best.

The old CHARLESTON COLLEGE, for which, from all the associations of our younger years, we entertain an attachment which grows stronger as years advance, was chartered in 1791. For a long time it was but a grammar school. It was reorganized for collegiate purposes, and, having fallen through, was resuscitated in 1837, chiefly, if we remember rightly, through the exertions of Henry L. Pinckney. The common council have taken the institution in hand, and are chargeable with its expenses beyond tuition receipts, which excess has, hitherto, been quite considerable. It is now flourishing, with an able faculty, several new professorships—and the number of students gradually, but steadily, increasing. The annual rates are too high to diffuse the advantages of the college as widely as should be. They are $80 per annum, though the best schools in the city receive even more.*

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* This institution has, of late, been greatly improved; extensive and additional wings are about to be added to the main building, and the front to be adorned by a colonnade of Ionic order; another professorship has also been established, entitled the chair of "Intellectual Philosophy and Greek Literature." Its condition is most flourishing.

COMMERCE.

There are lines of two steamships running to New York, two to Philadelphia and one to Havanna; eleven sailing ships, two barques, eight brigs and five schooners, to New York; three barques and three brigs, to Boston; three barques, three brigs and three schooners, to New Orleans; two brigs and nine schooners, to Philadelphia; six schooners, to Baltimore, etc. There are eighteen full branch pilots, eight second branch, and nine pilot boats. The tonnage from 1800 to 1805 was:

	Registered foreign trade.	*Coasting.*	*Total.*
1800,	43,732	7,480	51,212
1801,	51,192	8,688	59,880
1802,	31,354	8,653	40,007
1803,	30,993	9,101	40,094
1804,	41,869	8,814	50,683

That from 1843 to 1849, shows a woful falling off—but then the years above were of extraordinary commercial prosperity.

1843,	10,013	11,135	21,148
1844,	8,394	11,221	19,615
1845,	8,516	11,420	19,963
1846,	13,732	13,287	37,019
1847,	14,992	13,667	28,659

There is a splendid dry dock, Gilbert's patent, owned by James Marsh. The largest vessels, cargoes and all, are taken up in two to three hours, and in four years 169 vessels have been served, 39 being ships and barques, and 42 brigs—charge forty cents the ton without cargo, eighty cents with cargo, ten cents per day the ton for use of dock, etc.

In sixteen years forty-one vessels have been wrecked on the coast of South Carolina and the Charleston bar, of which thirteen were ships and barques.

We have published, as our back volumes will show, very full statistics of the exports of rice, cotton, and lumber, from Charleston. We give, however, at the end of this article, the exports of cotton and rice, drawn from the elaborate and laborious tables of the census.

The crops of Sea Island Cotton have decreased, from an average of about 35,000 bales in 1820, to an average of 22,000 or 23,000 during the last ten years. Of this, Charleston received about two-thirds and Savannah the rest. The total rice crop of Carolina reaches an average of 130,000 tierces, of which Charleston receives all, except 1,000 or 1,500 tierces going to Georgetown. The Georgia crop averages 35,000, and the North Carolina 7,000 tierces.

The average importation of corn into Charleston, is about 400,000 bushels, of which the railroad now brings one-half from the interior of the State. Importations of oats average 50,000 or 60,000 bushels. Average bales hay 20,000 to 25,000. Imports sugar, average hogsheads 8,000, tierces 200, barrels 2,000, boxes 1,000; Molasses, hogsheads 5,000 (of late , barrels 5,000; average coffee, bags 28,000; salt, sacks about 100,000, and 20,000 bushels.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

	Imports.	*Exports.*	*Revenue.*
Year ending 30th June, 1844,	$1,131,515	$7,433,282	$497,000
" " 1845,	1,143,158	8,800,648	330,276
" " 1846,	902,536	6,848,477	284,493
" " 1847,	1,580,658	10,431,517	389,553
" " 1848,	1,485.200	8,081,917	324,468

BANKS AND INSURANCE COMPANIES.

BANKS.	*Charter.*	CAPITAL.	*Par value of shares.*	*Average rate pr. c. of dividends. 15 years.*
Bank of South Carolina,	1792	$1,000,000	$45	6.09
State bank,	1802	1,000,000	100	5.90
Union bank,	1810	1,000,000	50	5.82

Planters & Mechanics bank	1810	1,000,000	25	7.17
Bank of the State of South Carolina	1812	[illegible]	*	....
Bank of Charleston	1835	[illegible]	100	7.44
South Western R. R. bank,	1835	[illegible]	25	5.03
COMPANIES.				
[illegible] Insurance company	1807	†450,000	60	11.11
Ch'n F. & M. Insurance company,	1818	†300,000	60	13.15
[illegible] Carolina Railroad company	[illegible]	[illegible]	75	4.25
Ch'n Insurance & Trust company	[illegible]	500,000	50	11.08
South Carolina Insurance company	1846	[illegible]	25	....

There are four steam cotton presses in Charleston, one cotton factory, six rice-mills, one sugar refinery, fourteen grist-mills, five engine factories, one brass foundery, five saw mills, five ship yards, one turpentine distillery, &c.

RAILROADS.

The Hamburg, of 136 miles, was begun in 1831 and finished in 1833, being *then* the longest road in the world. The Louisville and Cincinnati road was chartered in 1837, but failing, the charter was united to that of the Hamburg road in 1844. Two branches have been added—to Columbia 68 miles, and to Camden 37 miles. Two other branch roads are in construction, to Charlotte, N. C., 109 miles, and to Greenville, S. C., over a hundred miles. The number of passengers on these roads has increased, from 26,649 in 1834, to 75,149 in 1848; the gross receipts, all sources, from $166,559 to $800,073; the bales of cotton, from 24,567 to 274,364.

PUBLIC HEALTH, &C.

The statistics, here, are very full and show the most laborious investigation. There are no tables of births, marriages and deaths, except for a single year, 1848, as no registry system is provided for.

CLIMATE.

"'A variation of eighty-three degrees between the heat and cold of different days of the same years, and of forty-six degrees in the different hours of the same day, in South Carolina, is to be found in its historical records.' This sudden change of forty-six degrees is recorded by Dr. Chalmers, as occurring in 1751. In 1813, it is stated that there was a fall of forty-four degrees in a few hours. Dr. Shecut mentions a fall of thirty-three degrees in twelve hours, occurring in 1819. At the present time, however, such great variations are not so common. In Dr. Chalmers's tables for ten years, from 1750 to 1759, the mean annual temperature was sixty-eight degrees; for the period of ten years, from 1809 to 1818, Dr. Shecut gives the mean annual temperature at sixty degrees, or a difference of eight degrees in the mean annual temperature of the city, in the space of sixty years. From 1840 to the present time, the mean annual temperature has been sixty-four degrees; showing an increase of the mean temperature of four degrees, since 1819."

YELLOW FEVER.

The inhabitants were exempt from 1750 to 1799, except a few cases in 1753 and 1755. From 1792 to 1801, the westerly winds prevailed, and yellow fever raged every summer except two. In the next ten years, the fever was very fatal in years when this wind most prevailed.

"Yellow fever first prevailed as an epidemic in this city in 1699 or 1700; the exact date cannot now be ascertained. According to the account given of it by Dr. Hewet, it prevailed in that year very extensively, carried off a large number of the inhabitants, including many of the chief men of the province, and was called the plague. The same disease recurred in 1703, and caused as fearful a mortality as at its previous visitation. From this period, no mention is made of its occurrence until 1728, when it again recurred, and was then first called Yellow Fever, although from the description given of the two former epidemics, there can be no doubt of the identity of the last with the two preceding. In this year, also, it caused a great number of deaths. In the year 1732, it commenced its ravages in May, and continued until September or October; during the height of the epidemic, from eight to twelve whites were buried daily. It again appeared in 1739, 1745, and 1748, and is said to have raged as severely in these years as in 1732. The number of deaths which it caused in those years cannot now be ascertained. From 1748 to 1792, no epidemics of yellow fever occurred, although it is stated that in 1753 and 1755, a few sporadic cases were seen. In 1792, a new series of epidemics occurred; it raged in that year, in 1794, 1795, 1796, 1797, 1799, 1800, 1801, 1802, 1804, 1807. The deaths from it, in those years in which any accounts are to be found, were: in 1799, 239; in 1800, 184; in 1802, 96; in 1804, 148; and in 1807, 162.

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* State bank, with no private stockholders.

† These companies were broken up by the fire of 1838.

"From 1807 to 1817, a period of ten years, there was nearly a complete exemption from epidemics of this disease. In this latter year it reappeared, and caused 270 deaths, of which a large number were children. In 1819, it again prevailed epidemically, causing 176 deaths. In the next year it prevailed slightly, but did not become epidemic. In 1824, another serious epidemic occurred, which carried off 231 persons. From this period, 1824, to 1838, no serious visitation of yellow fever occurred, although several cases of it existed in each of the years 1827, 1828, 1834, 1835. In 1838, the most serious epidemic occurred which has been known in the annals of Charleston, and causing the largest mortality which has ever resulted from the disease in this city. In 1839, it was again epidemic, but to a much less extent, than during the former year. From 1839 to the present time, nine years have elapsed, during which the city has been exempt from the visitations of the scourge, and it is a question vitally important to her interests, whether this exemption is to continue, or whether it is but one of those pauses which have occurred at various intervals in her history. This problem can be solved by time only." *

MORTALITY.

The small-pox has prevailed epidemically several times in the early history of the city, and, in 1738 and 1760, most frightfully. The cholera also raged in 1836. The tables exhibit, in a very favorable light, the health of this city, among the white population, for all ages under fifteen; the proportional mortality being lower, at this age, than either Lowell or Surrey; the former accounted the healthiest city in the United States, the latter the healthiest in all England. Among the black population, the proportional mortality is higher at this age than in Lowell or Surrey, but lower than in the other cities named. In the whole population, under fifteen, the rate of mortality is lower than in any other city named except Surrey. For the ages from fifteen to sixty, however, the comparison is by no means favorable to Charleston; the proportional mortality of this class of her population, both white and black, being higher than in any of the cities named, except Liverpool. For the whole population above sixty, the proportional mortality is higher than in any of the other cities. In the white population above sixty, the rate of mortality is rather lower than in Liverpool and London, but higher than in the other cities. The cause of this increased mortality in the higher ages is a question of interest. It cannot be the result of climate, for, in unhealthy climates, the mortality among children is always greater, in proportion, than among adults. The source of the greater proportional mortality of the middle ages must, therefore, be sought for in the habits of the people, as this is the most fruitful cause of sickness and mortality to a population, the effects of climate excepted.

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* The yellow fever has again paid a hurried visit to his old friends in Charleston, merely to show he has not forgotten them, 1849.—ED.

EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM CHARLESTON.

	EXPORTS—BALES COTTON.							PER CENT.		*Receipts at Charleston.*		Stock on hand last day in year		COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.		
	Foreign.		*Coastwise.*		*Total Foreign and Coastwise.*		*Total exports*	*Pro. in 100 bales expor*								
	S.Island.	Upland.	Sea I.	Upland.	S.Island.	Upland.	Bales.	For'gn	Coast.	S.Island	Upland.	Sea I.	Upland.	S. Island.	Upland.	Total Crop.
1st Oct. 1819 to 30th Sept. 1820,	....	....	......	....	21,484	125,475	146,959	......	......	....	....	......	....	*33,379	352,397	385,776
" 1820 " " 1821,	....	....	......	....	24,622	98,673	123,295	......	......	....	....	......	....	35,510	344,089	379,599
" 1821 " " 1822,	25,510	91,806	†	12,734	25,510	104,540	130,050	†	......	....	....	......	....	36,285	404,317	440,602
" 1822 " " 1823,	26,747	111,627	"	24,539	26,747	136,166	162,913	"	......	....	....	......	....	37,577	489,656	527,233
" 1823 " " 1824,	24,632	105,223	"	24,663	24,632	129,886	154,518	"	......	....	....	......	....	34,583	402,557	437,140
" 1824 " " 1825,	18,253	117,349	"	23,725	18,253	141,074	159,327	"	......	....	....	......	....	26,016	‡ 505,408	531,424
" 1825 " " 1826,	12,647	141,806	"	22,737	12,647	164,543	177,190	"	......	....	....	......	....	18,676	691,324	§710,000
" 1826 " " 1827,	31,828	152,885	"	46,290	31,828	199,175	231,003	"	......	....	....	......	....	46,377	890,623	937,000
" 1827 " " 1828,	22,750	99,518	"	25,369	22,750	124,887	147,637	"	......	....	....	......	....	34,876	677,124	712,000
" 1828 " " 1829,	23,047	161,531	"	29,450	23,047	190,981	214,028	86.24	13.76	....	....	......	....	36,776	820,968	857,744
" 1829 " " 1830,	16,536	165,636	1,172	26,084	17,708	191,720	209,428	86.99	13.01	17,515	191,490	1,704	2,204	27,287	949,558	976,845
" 1830 " " 1831,	18,597	148,127	1,720	36,854	20,317	184,981	205,298	81.22	18.78	19,516	190,495	903	7,648	27,903	1,010,945	1,038,848
" 1831 " " 1832,	16,941	165,687	1,302	35,346	18,243	201,033	219,276	83.29	16.71	17,800	195,912	400	2,527	27,907	959,570	987,477
" 1832 " " 1833,	21,787	143,166	1,102	32,925	22,889	176,091	198,980	82.90	17.10	22,609	175,319	380	1,755	35,054	1,035,384	1,070,438
" 1833 " " 1834,	17,149	197,959	1,539	40,924	18,688	238,883	257,571	83.51	16.49	19,435	234,888	1,151	2,639	28,144	1,177,250	1,205,394
" 1834 " " 1835,	15,180	145,649	932	42,358	16,112	188,007	204,119	78.79	21.21	15,265	189,386	301	4,018	24,651	1,229,677	1,254,328
" 1835 " " 1836,	15,131	180,361	729	47,669	15,860	228,030	243,890	80.16	19.84	16,534	228,548	915	3,298	25,551	1,335,174	1,360,725
" 1836 " " 1837,	12,152	154,103	269	33,138	12,421	187,241	199,662	83.27	16.73	16,768	188,469	5,179	3,547	22,225	1,400,705	1,442,930
" 1837 " " 1838,	16,712	229,755	405	56,865	17,117	286,620	303,737	81.14	18.86	12,862	286,866	924	2,245	17,689	1,783,808	1,801,497
" 1838 " " 1839,	9,975	148,285	537	53,917	10,512	202,202	212,714	74.40	25.60	11,756	203,977	2,168	3,994	16,292	1,344,240	1,360,532
" 1839 " " 1840,	19,310	228,191	459	59,719	19,769	287,910	307,679	80.44	19.56	18,353	287,317	752	3,401	26,555	2,151,280	2,177,835
" 1840 " 31st Aug. 1841,	12,840	148,208	930	60,589	13,770	208,797	222,567	72.36	27.64	14,063	209,653	1,045	3,507	20,265	1,614,680	1,634,945
1st Sept. 1841 " " 1842,	14,110	184,705	341	70,442	14,466	255,147	269,607	73.75	26.25	13,731	255,439	316	3,659	20,461	1,663,113	1,683,574
" 1842 " " 1843,	16,351	257,035	681	78,523	17,032	335,558	352,590	77.54	22.46	17,666	339,233	950	7,334	24,291	2,354,584	2,378,875
" 1843 " " 1844,	15,043	166,290	1,148	123,023	16,191	289,313	305,504	59.36	40.64	15,680	296,142	439	13,097	19,138	2,011,271	2,030,409
" 1844 " " 1845,	20,905	288,870	423	111,698	21,328	400,568	421,896	73.42	26.58	21,499	401,221	610	10,269	28,472	2,366,031	2,394,503
" 1845 " " 1846,	19,527	160,233	476	87,841	20,003	248,074	268,077	67.06	32.94	20,696	145,211	1,303	7,406	30,201	2,070,336	2,100,537
" 1846 " " 1847,	10,869	179,467	698	156,064	11,567	335,531	347,098	54.84	45.16	14,457	353,587	4,193	25,462	21,105	1,757,546	1,778,651
" 1847 " " 1848,	15,345	183,501	685	98,061	16,030	281,562	297,592	66.82	33.18	13,506	269,908	1,669	12,416	21,725	2,325,909	2,347,634

* For explanation of Sea Island Crops, see article "Cotton," page 105.

† See Note in the Detailed Tables, page 92.

‡ The Upland Crops of these first six years are the exports from the United States, given in Tables page 110.

§ From this period the total Crops of the United States are those made up by the "New York Shipping and Commercial List."

EXPORTS OF RICE FROM CHARLESTON.

	EXPORTS.							PER CENTUM.						
	Foreign.		*Coastwise.*		*Foreign and Coastwise.*		T'l exp'ts of Tcs. & R. rice reduced to Tcs. at 21 bushels.	Propn. in 100 Tcs. exported		* Proportion in 100 Tierces of Clean and Rough exported.		Receipts at Charleston.	† Stock on the last day of the year.	‡ Rice Crops.
	Tierces	Bushels R. Rice.	Tierces.	Bushels R. Rice.	Tierces.	Bushels R. Rice.	Tierces.	In Tierces	In bs. R. reduced to Tcs. at 21 bush.	For'gn	Coast.	Tierces.	Trcs.	Tierces.
1st Oct. 1819 to 30th Sept. 1820,	....	....	....	....	64,153	....	64,153	......	......	......	......	....	......	88,820
" 1820 " " 1821,	....	....	....	....	75,366	....	75,366	......	......	......	......	98,330	......	115,591
" 1821 " " 1822,	67,131	....	11,030	§	78,161	....	78,161	......	......	§	......	....	......	100,907
" 1822 " " 1823,	68,014	....	12,384	"	80,398	....	80,398	......	......	"	......	90,222	......	103,252
" 1823 " " 1824,	79,830	106,407	17,273	"	97,103	106,407	102,170	......	......	"	......	....	......	125,973
" 1824 " " 1825,	69,750	66,853	19,653	"	89,403	66,853	92,587	......	......	"	......	....	......	110,222
" 1825 " " 1826,	76,534	128,750	12,528	"	89,062	128,750	95,193	......	......	"	......	....	......	117,248
" 1826 " " 1827,	89,181	170,007	11,266	"	100,447	170,007	108,543	......	......	"	......	....	......	132,811
" 1827 " " 1828,	96,618	198,617	15,013	"	111,631	198,617	121,089	......	......	"	......	....	......	145,678
" 1828 " " 1829,	80,620	248,724	31,567	....	112,187	248,724	124,031	90.45	9.55	74.55	25.45	....	......	155,730
" 1829 " " 1830,	78,262	171,834	29,058	....	107,320	171,834	115,503	92.92	7.08	74.84	25.16	123,101	2,240	145,943
" 1830 " " 1831,	62,176	196,881	30,206	....	92,382	196,881	101,757	90.79	9.21	70.32	29.68	110,072	1,540	135,586
" 1831 " " 1832,	67,018	268,164	38,212	....	105,230	268,164	117,999	89.18	10.82	67.62	32.38	127,392	1,891	151,925
" 1832 " " 1833,	75,440	315,202	47,254	....	122,694	315,202	137,705	89.10	10.90	65.68	34.32	143,473	1,547	178,255
" 1833 " " 1834,	65,715	363,793	31,099	13,719	96,814	377,512	114,791	84.34	15.66	72.34	27.66	118,762	2,084	145,371
" 1834 " " 1835,	60,401	317,594	40,760	41,788	101,161	359,382	118,275	85.53	14.47	63.86	36.14	124,250	1,859	151,000
" 1835 " " 1836,	62,019	356,752	46,438	30,307	108,457	387,059	126,888	85.47	14.53	62.27	37.73	133,533	1,923	168,851
" 1836 " " 1837,	49,384	512,808	39,710	22,999	89,094	535,807	114,608	77.74	22.26	64.40	35.60	119,917	524	150,958
" 1837 " " 1838,	35,493	336,442	29,913	19,399	65,406	355,841	82,351	79.42	20.58	62.55	37.45	90,386	1,936	119,341
" 1838 " " 1839,	41,222	470,312	35,202	22,950	76,424	493,262	99,912	76.49	23.51	63.67	36.33	106,001	913	136,583
" 1839 " " 1840,	48,248	431,506	31,591	....	79,839	431,506	100,387	79.53	20.47	68.53	31.47	107,108	835	140,243
" 1840 " 31st Aug. 1841,	53,571	455,592	25,232	15,489	78,803	471,081	101,236	77.84	22.16	74.35	25.65	107,052	452	140,421
1st Sept. 1841 " " 1842,	54,516	445,685	34 038	2,870	88,554	448,555	109.914	80.57	19.43	68.91	31.09	117,994	1,332	150,422
" 1842 " " 1843,	57,574	294,018	57,701	6,519	115,275	300,537	129,580	88.96	11.04	55.23	44.77	136,733	1,177	175,049
" 1843 " " 1844,	59,964	483,595	43,265	5,027	103,229	488,622	126,497	81.61	18.39	65.61	34.39	135,561	2,591	176,293
" 1844 " " 1845,	43,351	561,409	40,970	....	84,321	561,409	111,054	75.93	24.07	63.11	36.89	117,939	1,496	160,597
" 1845 " " 1846,	38,038	346,230	45,666	8,909	83,704	355,139	100,615	83.19	16.81	54.19	45.81	111,407	2,688	156,928
" 1846 " " 1847,	65,970	489,363	48,211	9,395	114,181	498,758	137,931	82.78	17.22	64.72	35.28	146,260	1,017	192,462
" 1847 " " 1848,	44,410	420,419	51,500	1,960	95,910	422,379	116,023	82.66	17.34	55.53	44.47	126,673	915	170,771

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* This per centage is calculated on the exports only, the city consumption having been thrown out.
† Exclusive of the stock of Rough Rice at the Mills.
‡ For explanation of Rice Crops, see article "Rice," page 112.
§ See Note in Detailed Tables, page 92.

2. MEMPHIS IMPROVEMENTS, BUSINESS, &c.

[We take pleasure in publishing the following gratifying evidence of the progress of Memphis.—Ed.]

The course of Memphis is still onward; her business of all kinds, trade, commerce and population steadily increasing; new houses, as well for business as family residences, are being erected in various quarters; and, everything, in short, manifests unmistakeable evidences of a thriving and growing community.

There is now little doubt that the Memphis and Charleston railroad will soon be put under contract, and completed in some two or three years—for it can just as well be done in this time, as in twenty or thirty years. This will add greatly to our trade; and add in an equal ratio to the prosperity of every interest, as well as to the population of our city. The right spirit is also beginning to manifest itself in regard to the improvement of the public roads connecting Memphis with the interior, as well as in the erection of manufacturing establishments of various kinds, which will be more particularly noticed in our next.

We have been highly gratified at another fact intimately connected not only with the interests of Memphis, but of the surrounding country, also: we allude to the great decrease in the number of trading boats lying at our landings in the last year or two compared with former periods. This proves either that our planters and farmers are producing themselves those necessary articles for which they have heretofore been dependent upon the industry and thrift of other States, or that the business of selling these articles has become more regular and legitimate by being transferred to established houses both on and under the bluff.

Whilst most of the heavy, or auction, grocery and produce business is done upon Front Row, Main street bids fair, and that before long, to be the great dry and fancy goods street of the city; from the fact, that it is the handsomest, and dryest, and least dusty, and less blocked up with persons, packages, boxes and barrels, and less bustling and noisy than Front street; and, of course, the very street where the ladies "most will congregate," promenade, and do their shopping. Indeed, there is much of this business, wholesale and retail, now done upon this street, by houses of well established reputation; as well as much produce, grocery and commission business.

The finest block of business houses upon Main street is that occupied by Messrs. S. & A Fowlkes & Co., J. Banks & Co., J. H. Stephenson & Co., and J. A. Fransioli & Co. These are opposite the United States hotel; and the best fitted up and arranged, with reference to comfort, convenience and safety, are those occupied by the Messrs. Fowlkes—indeed, we have not seen them surpassed *anywhere* in these respects. Their produce, grocery and commission department is on the south-east corner of Main and Adams streets, and adjoining it is their dry goods store. These are kept warm in cold weather by furnaces and flues, conveying the requisite amount of heat to every part of the buildings. In the cellar is a capacious cistern in which is placed a forcing pump for raising the water to a reservoir at the top of the house, from which water is conducted to every room in both houses by means of pipes. Attached to the forcing pump is, one hundred feet of hose, by which fire can be promptly extinguished without the aid of fire engines. These houses are well filled with all the articles proper to each, and are doing a very extensive and profitable business. They have also contracted for the erection of a fire proof warehouse for the storing of cotton, &c., in the rear of the block spoken of. This will be 148 long, by 587½ feet broad.

☞ The cellars are dug for two other buildings of similar height and dimensions, which will make the block complete, and its whole length one hundred and forty-eight feet. These will be erected by H. B. Joiner and Charles Jones.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1. CULTURE OF COTTON IN BRITISH INDIA.

It is important that our planters keep steadily before them what the British government is doing, or is likely to do, in its vast India possessions, in regard to the cultivation of cotton. In this view, we have heretofore, and shall from time to time hereafter, cull from the papers, in that quarter, whatever touches the general subject.

INDIA COTTON CULTURE.

We discussed, at considerable length, last week, the all-important question of a commission to India, to investigate thoroughly the real nature of the impediments that prevent the extension of cotton cultivation in the presidencies most favorable to its growth. Mr. Bright has already presented to the House of Commons, a petition from the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, embodying its views on this subject, and praying for a full and impartial inquiry through the medium of a government commission. The honorable member for Manchester has, also, given notice of his intention to move for the appointment of such a commission; and we are glad to see that active exertions are in progress to strengthen his hands, by an effective representation of the opinions of the mercantile classes of Manchester, on this important subject. A petition now lies in the Exchange, which has already received the signatures of upward of two hundred of the principal merchants and manufacturers of this district. The following is the petition:

TO THE HONORABLE THE COMMONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, IN PARLIAMENT ASSEMBLED.

The petition of the undersigned, merchants, manufacturers and other inhabitants of Manchester and Salford, and their vicinities,

Showeth—That, for the last four years, the cotton manufacture of this country, which, in a healthy state, supplies nearly one-half of the whole value of British exports, has been subjected to most injurious disturbances through an inadequate supply of the raw material, for which, from its nature, this country is wholly dependent upon imports from warmer climates.

That it is of vital consequence to every interest in this kingdom, that a trade, in which so vast an amount of fixed capital is embarked, which distributes such immense sums, weekly, among a population dependent on them, and which influences the well-being of every consumer in the State, in proportion as it is in a prosperous or a depressed condition, should be as little as possible liable to pernicious fluctuations from a deficient supply of its first requisite.

That, to engender steadiness of supply, it has become of absolute necessity, that the sources whence cotton may be obtained, should be immediately multiplied.

That, in looking to the countries capable of producing cotton, your petitioners first fix their attention upon India, because the plant is there indigenous, and the cultivation of it has been pursued for centuries. They see, however, with regret, that while the use of cotton manufactures has increased with an almost incredible rapidity, in countries which cannot produce the raw material, India, which has so long possessed the raw material and a population adequate to the production of any quantity, has not, from the inferiority and want of improvement of the quality of her cotton, participated with other and younger countries in the supply of it.

That your petitioners believe that the supineness of India, in the improvement of her cotton, has not arisen from the unfitness either of the soil or climate. The government of India, at great cost and with much apparent earnestness, have endeavored to arouse the native population to a sense of their own interest, in this respect; but the experiments have mainly, if not entirely, failed, and the hopes of relief from that quarter, so hopeful by nature, are becoming faint, and the benefits which a more enlarged intercourse with this country would confer upon India, are repressed.

That it is in evidence before your honorable house, that large portions of India are well suited to the production of cotton—your petitioners are anxious to have it ascertained, by means of an inquiry that may leave no doubt, what have been the causes which have restrained India from so improving the quality of her cotton, as to enable her to compete with the cottons of other countries in the British market; and as such an inquiry could not but be most useful in displaying the economical condition of the people of India, and in providing data whereby your honorable house may, at the proper time, be better enabled to consider whether the system heretofore applied to India is such as is best calculated to excite the energies of the people, to lead to industry and well-being, and to develop the resources of the country; and being desirous only that the truth should be made manifest, and that errors in government, if errors exist, should be corrected.

Your petitioners humbly pray, that, for the benefit both of this country and of India, and for the useful guidance of the legislature, your honorable house may address her Majesty to appoint, forthwith, a royal commission, to make strict inquiry within the presidencies of Bombay and Madras into the causes which have prevented the increase of the cultivation and the improvement of the quality of the cotton grown within them.

The capabilities of India, for the growth of any quantity of raw cotton, are unquestioned. The difficulties that impede its cultivation, arise from the causes that spring from the very nature of the government, and are remediable only by an entire change in its financial and internal policy. These causes are to be found chiefly in the impoverishment and exhaustion of the material resources of the people—the utter absence of all encouragement, on the part of the government, to any improvement in the means of communication—a wasteful and injurious system of taxation, that strikes at the very root of industrial enterprise, and which denies everything like security or protection to the capital, as well as to the labor, of the cultivator. The government of India assumes to be the landlord of every portion of the soil, and derives the main bulk of its revenue from a direct tax on the produce of the land. Now, if this were a fixed amount, equitably levied, not by an arbitrary assumption on the part of the government, of a right to determine what proportion of the whole produce would constitute a sufficient remuneration for the skill, industry and capital of the cultivator, but on a fair valuation of the intrinsic worth of the mere use of the soil, as an implement of production, this form of taxation would probably be the least injurious in which it could fall upon the tax-payer. But the assessment of the Indian land tax is both arbitrary and capricious. As a rule, it is excessive as well as fluctuating; and the natural consequence is, to deprive industry of all stimulus by destroying the only incentive which can sustain it—the certainty of reaping the full fruits of its own skill and perseverance. Experience sufficiently shows us, in this country, how powerful the tenantcy-at-will system has been in checking agricultural improvements, although the great majority of landed proprietors were not disposed to deal harshly or unjustly with enterprising or improving occupiers. The mere liability to have the fruits of their industry torn from them, has operated like a blight on the energy of our farmers, and maintained the produce of the soil far below its natural capabilities. How, then, must the same principle have worked in India, where the landlord was not the 'squire of the parish, influenced by local ties and associations, but the government of a huge territory, constantly under the pressure of financial exigencies, and interested in raising the largest revenue in the most summary way? How could industry, capital or cultivation, increase under a system where the amount of produce was invariably made the criterion for determining the tax-paying capabilities of any particular district? For this, unquestionably, has been the practice of the Indian government in most of the collectorates. In the able report of the Bombay commission, made three years ago, the evils of a fluctuating assessment to the land tax are very clearly shown. But a much more important fact is also substantiated by the same document, viz.: that a *fixed* assessment, though bearing a large proportion to the gross *average* produce, than a fluctuating one formed on the actual estimates of each year's standing crop, is much more favorable to cultivation and industry. But the facts stated in this report, not only show the advantages of a fixed, over a fluctuating estimate, but prove, most conclusively, that a low *fixed* assessment tends rapidly to increase cultivation, and is more favorable to the revenue than a high one. In the collectorate of Broach, the report informs us that the fluctuating was changed for a high fixed assessment; while, in the Shalopore collectorate, a similar change was made to a fair or low fixed assessment. What was the result of this experiment, in the two districts only, in twelve years, with a *high* but fixed assessment—from 1834 to 1846? In the district of Broach, the total land under cultivation increased only from 590,000 beegas, to 610,000; while, in Shalopore, with a *low* assessment, the quantity of cultivated land increased from 409,000 to 1,713,000 beegas: so that, not only was the revenue obtained from the low assessment much greater than it would have been, with a high one, but the cultivated surface was increased, in this collectorate, above 400 per cent.

A government commission, despatched to India, expressly to investigate the operation of the land-tax assessments in all the cotton growing districts, would supply a vast fund of facts illustrative of the destructive effects of the present loose and arbitrary system of taxation. Whether India can, or, can not, successfully compete with the cotton growing States of America, such an inquiry would, at any rate, conduce most materially to her prosperity, by revealing the real impediments with which our system of government fetters her resources and harasses the industry of her people. The position of Lancashire is every year becoming more critical, and the necessity more imperative for some decisive attempt to ascertain whether or not our possessions in British India can be made conducive to the greater security of our staple manufacture. The accounts, which every successive steamer now brings, from the other side of the Atlantic, with reference to the deficiency of the last cotton crop, and the apparently unfavorable season for the planting of the new one, render it more than ever important that some decisive steps should be taken to render us less dependent upon a single soil and climate for our future supplies. We trust, therefore, that the exertions which are now making will induce the government to accede to the motion of Mr. Bright, and that both the Manchester Chamber of Commerce and the Commercial Association will cordially co-operate to bring the whole weight and influence of the mercantile community of Manchester to bear upon what we cannot otherwise designate than as a great national necessity.—*Manchester Examiner.*

CULTIVATION OF COTTON IN INDIA.

As we have repeatedly explained, the transport of cotton from the fields to the port of shipment, as at present conducted, is all but fatal to the character of the staple, and even to the profits of the traders. Until some substitute is found for the miserable bullock-droves, which now supply the only means of carriage, it is quite impossible that a fair trial can be given to the cotton-producing qualities of India. Yet, at this point, also, the personal intervention of English agents might be of infinite service, for their reports would convey authentic information as to facts, and when these facts have been duly appreciated, we are entitled to anticipate with confidence that capital would be no longer wanting to establish all the requisite communications between one port of India and another. At present, the very name of a railroad has been brought into unfortunate disrepute by the results of improvident speculation and scandalous mismanagement. But these miscarriages should serve rather to guide than to deter, and with warnings so impressive, and so fair a field as India for the revival of enterprise, results of a widely different character might be safely expected. Above all, it must be remembered that our choice is not absolutely free. Cotton we *must* have, and though some aid may be, perhaps, contributed from miner sources, it is evident to all who have considered the subject, that in India alone can be found any permanent or effectual safeguard against such contingencies as have suggested the present remarks.

There is, we fear, little room left for doubting that the apprehensions which have been repeatedly expressed, for the steadiness of our cotton supplies, will receive an unpleasant verification in the imports of the ensuing season. Already have the results of last year's deficiencies become sensible. It is not anticipated that the total shipments to England, from the American ports during the present season, will exceed 1,000,000 bales. They have, hitherto, not reached 950,000; and, indeed, the total exports since the first of last September, have been fully 500,000 bales below those of 1849, and 200,000 below those of 1848. Last year the shipments to England, during the first half of the month of April, were 84,000 bales; this year the return, for the corresponding period, gives an export of only 29,000—showing a decrease of nearly two-thirds. Facts, like these read us an impressive lesson upon our position and our perils. Cotton is scarcely less indispensable to us than corn; whereas, while in one case we can command the resources of the entire globe, by the immutable laws of demand and supply, in the other we are virtually dependent on the produce of a single State and the variations of a single climate. The cotton plant is as liable to injury as the vine, and a bad crop is as probable an event as a bad vintage: yet, against so disastrous a contingency, in spite of repeated warnings, we have made no provision whatever.

It is true that the attention of the manufacturing districts have been awakened to the hazards of their position, and directed toward the real source of security; but though all parties seem prepared to co-operate in the work, there has been, as yet, nothing effected toward the production of a tangible result. The East India Company has expended vast pains and considerable sums, in testing the agricultural capabilities of their territory; and the Manchester Chamber of Commerce has memorialized government in furtherance of the same ends. It has been ascertained, on one side, that India can unquestionably produce cotton of admirable quality, in abundance, sufficient for all the demands of England; and it is confessed, on the other, that the opening of such a source of supply would be extremely acceptable. To complete the unanimity of purpose, the finances of India are in such a condition that any measure tending to increase the exports and revenue of the country, would be in a high degree opportune and serviceable. If, therefore, certain proceedings would conduce, at one and the same time, to the prosperity of India and the security of Manchester, and are, besides, notoriously practicable, why is the result not achieved without further delay?

The first necessity of a cultivator, is food. In this country, as in most parts of Europe, any agricultual produce can find a market and secure a safe return in money; but in India, the cultivator has no such guarantee. He has no certain market within reach, nor has he the means of transmitting his produce, however intrinsically saleable it may be, to markets at a greater distance. Unless, therefore, his crop be of such a kind as will serve in the last resort for his own consumption, he is liable to the extremities of want. Suppose, for example, that he plants his fields with cotton, and that, by aid of a favorable season, he raises a respectable crop, he is, perhaps, hundreds of miles from the cotton markets of the coast, to which he has no means of access. In other countries, such conditions of cultivation would call into being a class of inland merchants, whose trade it would be to purchase the crops on the fields of their growth, and collect them for transmission to the exporters. In India, no such class of agents exist. The inland trader is a man without enterprise, capital or knowledge, who would simply avail himself of such circumstances as we have supposed, to lie in wait for the unfortunate cultivator, and secure his cotton at a nominal price when he was on the verge of starvation. But, by growing edible grains, the ryot escapes such straits as these. In the worst of cases he can pay his modicum of rent in kind, and reserve the remainder of his crop for his own subsistence. By such means, he makes himself independent of merchants or markets—nor can it be any matter of surprise that he adopts them. The consequence is, that, in the interior of the Deccan, where the best cotton lands lie, cotton is not grown upon one field in fifty capable of producing it—and thus, no material supplies have ever found their way to England.

The remedy for this is so obvious and simple, that it scarcely needs to be indicated. What is primarily required, is a class of Indian traders, sufficiently intelligent and provided with sufficient means to take the cotton from the ryot, at a money price, which will renumerate him for his labor, and encourage him to renew the experiment. There is no want of acuteness in the native cultivators. The capabilities of various lands, and the values of various descriptions of produce, are computed and known, to a nicety, and the preference would be invariably given to the more remunerative crops, if there were accessible markets for all. At present, grain of the coarsest kind is grown, not because the land will not bear cotton, but because cotton will not yield food. Whenever such arrangements can be made, that cotton becomes readily convertible into money, it will supercede grain to any extent required. As for the land tax, it will be seen how correct were our calculations in attributing no weight at all to this alleged burden on agriculture. With rent and dues of all kinds, at eighteen pence an acre, no man can well complain of taxation.

The Manchester Chamber of Commerce has thus received a very promising, and certainly not an impracticable, suggestion. The agents of English mercantile houses are stationed all over the world—in all climates, and under all governments—from Hong Kong to Vera Cruz—from Hudson's Bay to the coast of Africa. Why should not such an element of commercial success be introduced into India?—*London Times.*

COTTON CULTURE IN THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The following article appears as editorial in Wilmer and Smith's European Times of April twentieth:

"The law of supply and demand, is the leverage which moves the commercial world. When an indispensable article of consumption becomes scarce, the value, as a natural consequence, rises in the market, just as it falls in value when there is a superabundance. Applying this uncontrovertible fact to cotton, you would imagine, to hear certain sapient persons talk, that they desired a bill of indictment against the whole of the southern planters, because they cannot control the seasons, and furnish abundance of the raw material for all the spindles in the world. These grumblers forget that the grower can no more regulate the price of cotton, than he can mete out the sunshine which feeds, or the frost which kills, the plant. The southernors engaged in the cultivation of the staple, might justly retort upon the lords of cottonopolis, in the language of the ancient Briton: 'If Cæsar can hide the sun with a blanket, and put the moon in his pocket, we'll pay tribute to him for light.'

"At the same time, when the equilibrium of prices has been destroyed by an unlooked for casualty—when exclusive dependence upon a particular country, for an essential article of commerce, is found to interfere with the legitimate course of capital and labor—it becomes, not only necessary, but imperative, to look elsewhere for a supply, fully equal to the requirements of the times, so as to be provided for every contingency; and in this spirit we can discern nothing to censure, but, on the contrary, much to commend, in the pains which are now taken to procure a supply of cotton from other parts of the world, to compensate for the unquestionable deficiency of the American crop.

"Much has been said and written about the capabilities of India, to send us as much cotton as we require, and, to a certain degree of faith in the capacity of that country, may be traced the anxiety with which the public has watched the formation of Indian railways, and the eagerness with which the progress and commpletion have been regarded. The East India Company has partaken largely of this feeling, and has extended a helping hand to two companies which have taken the field, and for which acts of Parliament were passed in the last season. One of these companies will cut a line from Calcutta to Delhi; the other a line from Bombay to Kalliar, in the direction of the great cotton field of Ghauts. These undertakings may be regarded as in practical operation, for the East India Company has guaranteed a dividend on the outlay, which makes their completion a matter of certainty. A third line from Madras to Arcot is also projected; but whether it will struggle into existence is, at present, somewhat questionable. Nevertheless, grave doubts exist, whether the best internal communication in the world would enable India to grow cotton in quantities sufficient to affect the price in the home market. At present India grows little more than is required for its own consumption and the export trade to China; and as to quality, it is impossible, under any circumstances, that the cotton of India can ever compete with the long staple of America.

"Port Natal is also mentioned, with encouragement, as a cotton growing district; but the smallness of the population, and the fact that no vessel has ever yet sailed from D'Urban, the only port in the colony, direct to England, shows that a long period must elapse ere its developments can produce tangible results.

"The most feasible scheme of the many which has been broached, is one put forward by the owners of property in British Guiana. The West India Association, in their petitions to parliament, as well as in their memorial to the colonial secretary, make out a strong case on behalf of the West Indies generally, and of Demarara more especially. The labor question is at the bottom of all our West India difficulties. Every plan adopted since the emancipation of the black population, to secure a sufficiency of labor, has failed, and the association ask, through Mr. F. Sand, their chairman, permission to engage blacks on the coast of Africa, on the plan which the British factories on the river Bonny adopt with the natives of the Kroo coast—namely, to hire them, say for five years, at the expiration of which they can return, if they desire it, to their native country. In the estimation of many persons, this would be equivalent to a renewal of the slave trade; but if similar arrangements were permitted in the case of the coolies, and in the one referred to—that of the Kroo blacks—we can see no sufficient reason why precautions might not be taken on the African coast as well as at Demarara, to protect the blacks who might willingly enter into these engagements, from the possibility of wrong or injury. To no higher practical end could the naval force which excites Mr. Hutt's antipathy be directed, and, under judicious regulation, the moral and physical condition of the laborers, instead of being deteriorated, would, in reality, be improved and elevated, by the boon which the West India Association solicit at the hands of government and the country. If the experiment were tried in British Guiana, it might, if successful, be extended to the West India islands.

In the meantime, the southern planters of America, stimulated by the prices which now prevail, have every inducement to extend the cultivation of cotton with, if possible, increased power and capital. Probably the next crop may, in its amplitude, compensate for the shortness of the last one, and the outcry which now exists for other fields of cultivation in various quarters of the globe, would, in the event of such a result, correspondingly abate. But at the same time they will read the signs which are every day passing around them very imperfectly, if they do not perceive a fixed determination, on the part of the merchants and the manufacturers of this country, and its government, to rely less exclusively than heretofore on the cotton of the United States.

Experientia docet.

2. WEST INDIA MODE OF SUGAR CULTURE.

[The following essay received, several years ago, the prize of one hundred guineas, offered by Lord Elgin, then governor of Jamaica, for the best practical treatise upon the subject. We have supposed it might interest our planters to know what systems their neighbors have been adopting, though no great practical good be derived from the information.—Ed.]

Commence by subdividing the old cane-fields, or such parts of them as may be suitable to receive the plow, into sections, by substantial and durable fences, and in the most convenient manner to save fencing and promote draining. Fences may be growing fences, or ditch and penguin. As ditches may be necessary in many parts, in carrying out the principle of draining and retaining water for stock, they will be found beneficial, and may be planted on the top of the bank with any of the growing fences found on experience to be the most substantial, durable and least expensive, and least likely to harbor rats.

The next important duty is to drain the land by under-drains, which can be dug by machinery, the tiles necessary for draining being made on the spot, by machinery. These points accomplished are the most expensive outlay at the commencement, but will be attended by a durable benefit. The next duty is to manure the land as high as you possibly can, by penning it over with horned stock, or sheep, or stable, or cattle pen dung, given in any way by which its virtues are saved to the soil, covering the pens immediately after they are removed, with a coat of loam, or if stiff clayey land, with lime or marl. This done, close-plow the land with a common single "Wilkie's" plow, seven inches deep, following in the same furrow with the sub-soil, going to sixteen inches into the sub-soil, or deeper, if possible. Then roll and harrow the land, extracting the weeds and grass, and open it into cane holes with a deep single plow, cleaning out the holes with a deep double-breasted plow. Your next duty is to plant them, giving the canes an opportunity of growing in their favorite manner in clusters, or stools, and not in single file along the row. As you plant, cover the bank and cane-bed with cane-trash, dry grass, or any other suitable covering, with a view to keep down grass and weeds, and to protect the soil from that exhalation, which, in tropical climates, is so rapid and so detrimental to land. By these means the plant canes will give very little trouble until they are fit to take the bank, which can be given with the plow. Cane land, so managed, will require very little labor in weeding or hoeing, the principal part of such work being performed with suitable light plows, drills, harrows, scarificators and other agricultural implements now in use in the United Kingdom. They not only eradicate grass and weeds, but turn up the soil and scatter seeds and manures of every kind, thereby saving a world of labor.

The principal part of the plowing and other field work, should be performed by horses, in which case three plowmen, six boys and eight good plow horses, with the assistance of steers occasionally to break stiff land, or in sub-soiling it, will be sufficient to plow, sub-soil, roll and harrow, drill, scarify, mold and hoe, all the various crops on the model sugar farm, with the aid of a small gang occasionally to plant, weed, trash, heap and turn out manure, fencing, &c.

While on the subject of plowing, it may be as well to remark, that as the plow is now coming into general use throughout the island, and its beneficial effects freely admitted and tolerably well understood ,all that remains for me, is to point out some improvement. The team of horses or steers should be brought as close as possible to the beam of the plow, and exactly in the center. They should then walk with a quick step without stopping.

It is proved beyond a doubt by the British farmers, that the work is better performed and with greater ease to the stock, when the horses in the plow go at the rate of three miles an hour, than when traveling at the rate of one mile in the same space of time. Repeated stoppages and going slow, are fagging both to man and beast, and detrimental to the quantity and quality of the work. Oxen may be so trained, as to perform excellent work without flogging.

They ought to be stall-fed during the plow season, on a mixture of hay, corn and grass, and kept exclusively for the plow. The same rule should be extended to the plow horses, with the addition of being well groomed twice a day. When the plow does not take the ground, or is otherwise out of order, the means of repairing and altering it should be on the estate.

RATOONS

Should be plow-molded every year, during which operation any of the chemical or lately discovered manures may be applied, such as are found by experience to be congenial to the nature of that specific soil which is drawn by analysis. By analyzing the soil and the compost, or other chemical manure, it is soon found which description of manure will be most beneficial; or well-digested cattle pen or stable manure, harrowed into the bank so broken, and covered over with the trash so taken off, when clearing for the plow. This may be done by a couple of smart boys going before the plow, raking the trash on the bank last cut by the plow, and so on in rotation to the end of the piece; or a raker drawn by one horse may be invented to remove the trash. By this simple process, canes may be kept ratooning as long as you like. The plow-molding, with the application of manure in the bank, may be done at an early stage, that is, when the sprouts make their appearance.

As the canes are covering the ground, or soon after, the soil may be again disturbed, either by a light single one-horse plow, or by a scarificator, harrow-drill or horse-hoe, or such of them as the sugar farmer, on experience, finds to be most beneficial. By cutting the rooty fibers of the canes that push out in collateral directions, fresh ones immediately replace them, and take up such nourishment as they can find in the newly cut bank; a reinforcement of suckers will be the result, while fresh stability is added to the mother cane. It is to this end I recommend dung and manures annually for the ratoons, which, if properly done, places them pretty nearly on an equality with the plant canes, and planters of experience know that the cheapest sugar is that produced from ratoons under the old system, and it will be doubly so under mine. When you determine on throwing out a piece of ratoons, I recommend a rotation of crops, such as Guinea corn, Indian corn and green crops of the most beneficial descriptions, for benefiting the land and affording food both for man and beast. They may be of plantains, cocoes, cassadoes, ochres, peas and beans; yams, sweet potatoes, pumpkins, melons and turnips, if you can succeed in this hot climate. Next comes artificial grasses, to be planted before or after the green crops. At this stage, you have the sample estate dividend in the different crops—canes, corn, fallow and green crops, and a part in artificial grasses, sufficient to make hay for the stable, cutting grass for the pens, and sufficient feeding for your stock. By this rotation of crops, you improve and benefit the land and produce good crops at a very moderate expense, and with one-fourth of the manual labor necessary under the old system. The greatest attention should be paid to making manure in the field and at the works—the drainings of the stables and cattle-pens should be preserved, and carted out to the field where most required. The compound qualities of this manure are very powerful. A few boys and mule carts would materially assist in carting out manure—bringing feeding for the pens and stable, and carting loam, lime, marl, or any other ingredient deemed necessary to improve the land. After the first two years necessary to lay the foundation of this work, a small plant will be sufficient—say, at the utmost, from 20 to 25 acres a year, which, after a routine of crops, and for years fed on by horned stock, horses, sheep, poultry and hogs—the land being in the first instance fenced, drained and sub-soiled—should, with moderate penning, give splendid returns in plants and ratoons.

DRAINING AND SUB-SOILING,

Being of the greatest benefit in producing large crops and improving the soil, I may as well give an idea of their merits. The old system of draining by open trenches, was detrimental to the land during heavy rains, as a quantity of loose soil and manure were washed away into the gulleys and rivers. The land not being sub-soiled, the rain could not penetrate far into the soil; the land became caked with a few days of hot sun, which proved detrimental to vegetation. When any quantity of moisture was retained on the surface, or in the upper strata, it heated and scalded the canes, while in the fall of the year or wintry months, it chilled them—in either case, checking vegetation and producing booty and woody joints, and thereby poor returns. The land being under-drained and sub-soiled 16 to 18 inches deep, the moisture soaks down through the soil into the sub-soil, from whence it escapes by the under drains, leaving its chemical benefits in the soil while passing through it.

By this means, in a dry season, the canes or other crops receive sufficient coolness and moisture by evaporation from the sub-soil, which for the most part being stiff and clayey, continues cool and moist. It is a well-known chemical fact, that all the essential airs necessary for the preservation and benefit of the animal and vegetable world, are contained in the clouds and reach the earth in wind and rain. Rain water being highly charged with them, is deposited in the soil, giving a lively impulse to vegetation, and aiding the manures and natural stability of the soil—that is, when the land is under-drained and sub-soiled.

The drains are to be cut 30 inches deep, then lay a course of tiles on the bottom; after which, lay 12 inches of broken stones, to be covered on the top with sods, flat stones, slate tiles or boards, to prevent the loose soil from getting amongst the stones and injuring the drain. The tiles prevent the stones from sinking into the clay, by which means the drains will be of long duration.

The sub-soil plow must enter 16 inches deep, leaving two inches on the top of the drains, clear of the plow. The land must be sub-soiled across the drains.

MANURING, ETC.

A flock of sheep, consisting of from 200 to 300 head, and as many working steers, horses and mules, as may be necessary to carry on the trial sugar farm, with the assistance of some breeding stock necessary to supply it, and constantly fed on the sections of the cane fields thrown out to rest, and producing artificial grasses and green crops, would be sufficient to make 250 hogsheads.

Land so dressed, with a due regard to the laws of agricultural chemistry, and receiving an annual supply of manure, either simple or compound, such as are found by analysis or experience to agree best with the description of the soil, should average 2½ hogsheads (West India hogsheads average 18 cwt.) per acre through the crop, that is, from plants and ratoons. In this case, a field of 100 acres would be sufficient, putting in an annual plant of 25 acres and supplying the ratoons with manure. In addition to the necessary number of plow and cart men, very few field laborers would be required to plant, clean and trash the canes. The sugar farm should raise its own stock thus situated, and breed as many stock and horse-kind as would be sufficient to carry on his farm successfully.

European farm laborers, if properly managed, are fully competent to perform a large proportion of the work necessary on this sugar farm.

BOURBON AND COLORED CANES.

The saving of labor being a matter of vital importance, permit me to remark that the Bourbon cane, so much admired for its superior yielding, is a very expensive cane, giving great trouble, and before it comes to maturity, requiring a great deal of labor.

It is a delicate cane and very slow in its growth, requiring many cleanings before it covers the ground, and seldom takes a start until the fall of the year. It furnishes a scanty supply of dry leaves to cover the land and keep it cool. It gives a smaller proportion of tops to supply the cattle pens with feeding and to make manure, and it suffers more from trespass. It gives a smaller proportion of fuel compared to the other canes, and in every sense of the word, it is not, in these bad times, so good a poor man's cane as the Montblanc and blue canes and black transparent canes. From the prejudices that formerly existed against the colored canes, they have been planted on light sandy soils and in galls, in which the Bourbon cane could not long exist. But if these inferior canes were planted in your best lands, well manured, I am convinced they would, on an average of five or seven years, pay better than the Bourbon cane, and would, in this given period, in plants and ratoons, make as much sugar at nearly one-half of the expense. For example, they grow rapidly and cover the ground quickly, they throw a great quantity of dry trash on the ground, and have a large bushy top that affords ample shade for the roots.

Comparatively speaking, they require very little weeding and trashing; they give ample protection to the land, by a deep cover of trash; they suffer less from the trespass of stock, hogs and rats, and the people do not eat them as they do the Bourbon cane. They give a great quantity of feeding for stock and supply for the cattle-pens, and a larger quantity of trash from the mill than is necessary for fuel to manufacture the sugar. The overplus is a valuable ingredient for making manure, which may be fermented in cattle-pens, or in pits where it may receive dundar. The drainings of the stable and cattle-pens, the refuse of skimmings, the washings of cisterns, and all the sweepings and cleanings about the works may be added, and ashes, &c.

The white or Montblanc cane, comes next in quality to the Bourbon, and may be successfully planted in the same piece, say every alternate row or two of Bourbon, and one of white cane. By this mixture, the extra trash from the latter assists in making up the deficiencies of the former.

The white and other colored canes suffer less from drought and poverty of soil, and ratoon better and much longer than the Bourbon cane, as they do not empoverish the land, but tend to improve it with proper culture.

A great deal more may be said in carrying out these leading principles into practical detail, but they are too numerous for this paper.

3. COTTON BLOOMS, FROSTS AND CROPS.

The subjoined table will be read with curiosity, if not with profit, by our planting friends. It shows the date of bloom and frost, with the crop of each season, from 1836 to date:

Date of bloom.		*Date of frost.*	*Extent of crop.*
1836,	4th June.	14th October.	1,432,000 bales.
1837,	7th May.	27th October.	1,800,000 "
1838,	14th June.	7th October.	1,360,000 "
1839,	24th May.	7th November.	2,117,000 "
1840,	6th June.	17th October.	1,634,000 "
1841,	10th June.	15th October.	1,683,000 "
1842,	17th May.	1st November.	2,379,000 "
1843,	12th June.	15th October.	2,030,000 "
1844,	31th May.	30th October.	2,394,000 "
1845,	30th May.	3d November.	2,100,000 "
1846,	10th June.	1st November.	1,800,000 "
1847,	29th May.	27th November.	2,348,000 "
1848,	30th May.	20th November.	*2,700,000 "
1849,	15th June.	10th December.	2,000,000 "

* Of which 200,000 bales were left over from preceding season.

Taking the above as a criterion, we may as well prepare for a short crop. In Central Georgia there are no blooms yet, and no prospect of any before the 18th to the 24th of June. Judging from this, we are destined to have another short crop. True there has been more ground planted than usual; but, in many sections, immense tracts of rich cotton lands, which last year were cultivated, are under water, and cannot be planted this season.

4. SUGAR AND ITS USES.

The French people are great eaters of sugar, always carrying some of it about with them, in their pockets and reticules, and, generally, putting five or six lumps into each cup of coffee. M. Chessat reports that sugar, when used as the exclusive, or principal article of diet, produces quite opposite effects in persons, according to the difference in their systems; for, while it fattens some, it creates bile, which induces a diarrhea, and a wasting of the solids, in other persons. The celebrated Bolivar had, by fatigue and privations, so injured the tone of his stomach, that he was unable, at times, to take any other food than sugar, which, in his case, was easy of digestion. His personal friends assure us, that, in some of his last campaigns, he lived, for weeks together, upon sugar alone, as a solid, with pure water as a liquid; but, probably, in nine hundred and ninety-nine cases out of a thousand, this diet would soon have brought the person adopting it to his grave; for, on those whose digestion is feeble, a large, or exclusive, allowance of sugar adds to their grievance, because the excess of nutriment, not being generally absorbed by their weakened system, becomes converted to bile, and causes great debility and wasting of the body. In seventeen experiments, made on dogs, M. Chessat observed, that, when the sugar diet fattened them, there was a general tendency to constipation meanwhile; and, on the contrary, when it produced an excess of bile in other dogs, their bowels were relaxed. Why English children suffer, in their digestion, after eating largely of sugar-plums, comfits, &c., is chiefly owing, however, to those delicacies being composed of the refuse of starch works, mixed with plaster of Paris, pipe clay and chalk, and having, indeed, as little sugar as will suffice to give them a palatable sweetness; and they are often colored with gamboge; and, sometimes, with red lead, verdigris, and other mineral poisons.

Everywhere, the beasts of the field, the reptiles, the fish and insects, are found to have a great liking for sugar and honey. Mr. Martin says he has tamed the most savage and vicious horses with sugar, and has seen the most ferocious animals domesticated by being partly fed upon it. The tamers of lions and tigers owe their power over them chiefly to a judicious use of sugar, and other sorts of sweets, and, also, of lavender water, and various other perfumes, of which feline animals are remarkably fond. In the sugar season, in the West Indies, the horses, mules and cattle, soon acquire a plumpness and strength by partaking of the leaving of the sugar canes, after the manufacturer has done with them. In Cochin-China, the elephants, buffaloes and horses, are all fattened with sugar. We learn, from the "Memoirs of Dr. Edw. Dartwright" (1843), that this ingenious man used to fatten sheep on sugar. To birds, this diet proved so nourishing, that the suppliers of the European poultry markets find that sugar, along with hemp seed and boiled wheat, will greatly fatten ruffs and reeves in the space of a fortnight.

5. ROSES.

The rose, in all countries, and in all times, has been held as the queen of flowers. The name, as it comes to us, is from the Greek *rodon;* it has relation to the color, red. The Greeks took their impression of the rose, and all matters of taste in the vegetable kingdom, from the Egyptians, Persians, and other nations of Asia. Everywhere it is the type of beauty and love. The Greeks had more taste than imagination, and they found, in their beautiful fables, the luxuriant growth of Oriental fancy. They have this tradition. The god of Love made a present to Harpocrates, the god of Silence, of a beautiful rose, the first that had been known, to engage him not to discover any of the secrets of his mother, Venus; and hence it has become a custom to have a rose placed in their rooms of mirth and entertainment, that, under the assurance thereof, they might lay aside all restraint, and speak what they pleased. Thus did the rose become a symbol of silence, and *sub rosa*, under the rose, denote as much as to be out of danger of any disclosure.

In India, and other portions of the East, the rose was commingled with sentiment and song. Its beauty and its perfume made it, in their imaginations, a match for the sweetest of nature's music, and hence the nightingale was married to the rose.

Flowers are delightful to all. The tasteful Athenians, who had a market for the sale of them, were obliged to pass sumptuary laws to restrain the extravagance of purchasers.

Such was the passion over every mind in the East for flowers, that from them has been made a universal language of friendship, affection and love. It is one of no difficult acquirement, and fragments have been diffused far and wide.

Roses are ornaments of the altar of hymen, while vases of lilies are placed upon the grave of youth and innocence.—*Samuel L. Knapp.*

6. HOUSES FOR NEGROES.

One of the most prolific sources of disease among negroes, is the condition of their houses and the manner in which they live. Small, low, tight and filthy, their houses can be but laboratories of disease; whilst on every side grow rancorous weeds and grass, interspersed with fruit trees, little patches of vegetables and fowl-houses effectually shading the ground, and preventing that free circulation of air so essential to the enjoyment of health in a quarter. Your correspondent has frequently detected the presence of worms, and sometimes in large numbers in negroes inhabiting houses thus conditioned and situated; so often, indeed, that he almost regarded their existence "as a matter of course." Nothing can be so deteriorating to the blood, and consequently to the secretions, as bad air. To be convinced of the truth of this assertion, your readers need but to refer to the "Reports of the Board of Health," in the nearest close-built and ill-ventilated cities and towns, and to the "sick lists" of hospitals, jails and ships. That fatal form of febrile disease, denominated "ship fever," though, to some extent, modified, has occurred repeatedly in negro houses. Not to contend for, in all probability, an admitted point, then, it may be concluded that it is important that planters should adopt some system or rule under the operation of which their negro houses shall be properly constructed, their quarters adequately ventilated and dried, and the manner of living among their negroes regulated.

It is a common custom with negroes to return in the evening from the field tired, and often in a perspiration, and lie down before their doors upon a board or bench, and sleep till nine or ten o'clock, while the dew is falling and the atmosphere becomes cool and damp; instead of going into their houses and either lying down in bed or before a gentle fire, where the exhalation from the skin would be more gradual, and that chilliness consequent upon their sudden "cooling" would be avoided. Let planters go at this hour around their quarters, and feel the hands and feet of negroes thus conducting themselves, and they will no longer be in doubt as to the source of their "chills and fevers." Now, it is not the wish of your correspondent to interfere with the household and domestic arrangements and affairs of negroes, nor to destroy their gardens and patches—to allow them which is all very proper—but when they will not have "an eye to health," themselves, it is to the interest of their owners to have an eye for them.—*Southern Cultivator.*

7. SOUTHERN NEGRO LIFE.

In this age of canting abolitionism and pseudo philanthropy, we have thought the following sketch from the pen of W. Cullen Bryant, editor of the New York Evening Post, worthy of preservation. The pictures, as far as they go, are painted by him true to life, and are only what we have all witnessed a thousand times over. Apropos too, this subject of southern negro poetry and song is a curious one and deserving of study, constituting as it does the literature, and indeed, the very ingenious literature, of that people. Several years ago, Judge Meek, of Alabama, contributed to one of the southern magazines several interesting papers upon the subject, interspersed with not a few specimens. Some day, at our leisure, we shall hunt them up.

TOBACCO FACTORY AT RICHMOND.

"I went afterward to a tobacco factory, the sight of which amused me, though the narcotic fume made me cough. In one room a black man was taking apart the small bundles of leaves of which a hogshead of tobacco is composed, and carefully separating leaf from leaf; others were assorting the leaves according to the quality, and others again were arranging the leaves in layers and sprinkling each layer with the extract of liquorice. In another room about eighty negroes, boys they are called, from the age of twelve years up to manhood, who receive the leaves thus prepared, rolled them into long even rolls, and then cut them into plugs of about four inches in length, which were afterwards passed through a press, and thus became ready for market. As we entered the room we heard a murmur of psalmody running through the assembly, which now and then swelled into a strain of very tolerable music.

'Verse sweetens toil—'

says the stanza which Dr. Johnson was so fond of quoting, and really it is so good that I will transcribe the whole of it:

'Verse sweetens toil, however rude the sound—
All at her work the village maiden sings,
Nor, while she turns the giddy wheel around,
Resolves the sad vicissitudes of things.'

"Verse, it seems, can sweeten the toil of slaves in a tobacco factory.

"'We encourage their singing as much as we can,' said the brother of the proprietor, himself a diligent masticator of the weed, who attended us, and politely explained to us the process of making plug tobacco; 'we encourage it as much as we can, for the boys work better while singing. Sometimes they will sing all day long with great spirit; at other times you will not hear a single note. They must sing wholly of their own accord, it is of no use to bid them to do it.'

"'What is remarkable,' he continued, 'their tunes are all psalm tunes, and the words are from hymn books; their taste is exclusively for sacred music; they will sing nothing else. Almost all these persons are church members; we have not a dozen about the factory who are not so. Most of them are of the Baptist persuasion; a few are Methodists.'"

A CORN SHUCKING.

"But you must hear of the corn shucking. The one at which I was present, was given on purpose that I might witness the humours of the Carolina negroes. A huge fire of *light wood* was made near the corn-house. Light wood is the wood of the long-leaved pine, and is so called, not because it is light, for it is almost the heaviest wood in the world, but because it gives more light than other fuel. In clearing land, the pines are girdled and suffered to stand; the outer portion of the wood decays and falls off, the inner part, which is saturated with turpentine, remains upright for years, and constitutes the planter's provision of fuel. When a supply is wanted, one of these dead trunks is felled by the ax. The abundance of light wood is one of the boasts of South Carolina. Wherever you are, if you happen to be chilly, you may have a fire extempore; a bit of light wood and a coal give you a bright blaze and a strong heat in an instant. The negroes make fires of it in the fields where they work; and, when the mornings are wet and chilly, in the pens where they are milking the cows. At a plantation where I passed a frosty night, I saw fires in a small inclosure, and was told by the lady of the house that she had ordered them to be made to warm the cattle.

"The light wood fire was made, and the negroes dropped in from the neighboring plantations, singing as they came. The driver of the plantation, a colored man, brought out baskets of corn in the husk, and piled it in a heap; and the negroes began to strip the husks from the ears, singing with great glee as they worked, keeping time to the music, and now and then throwing in a joke and an extravagant burst of laughter. The songs were generally of a comic character; but one of them was set to a singularly wild and plaintive air, which some of our musicians would do well to reduce to notation. These are the words:

'Johnny come down de hollow.
Oh, hollow!
Johnny come down de hollow.
Oh, hollow!
De nigger-trader got he.
Oh, hollow!
De speculator bought me.
Oh, hollow!
I'm sold for silver dollars.
Oh, hollow!

Boys, go catch the poney.
Oh, hollow!
Bring him round de corner.
Oh, hollow!
I'm going away to Georgia.
Oh, hollow!
Boys, good-bye for ever.
Oh, hollow!'

"The song of 'Jenny gone Away,' was also given, and another, called the monkey-song, probably of African origin, in which the principal singer personated a monkey, with all sorts of odd gesticulations, and the other negroes bore part in the chorus, 'Dan, dan, who is the dandy?' One of the songs, commonly sung on these occasions, represents the various animals of the woods as belonging to some profession or trade for example:

'De cooter is de boatman—'

The cooter is the terrapin, and a very expert boatman he is.

'De cooter is de boatman.
John, John Crow.
De red-bird de soger.
John, John Crow.
De mocking bird de lawyer.
John, John Crow.
De alligator, sawyer.
John, John Crow.'

"The alligator's back is furnished with a toothed ridge, like the edge of a saw, which explains the last line.

"When the work of the evening was over, the negroes adjourned to a spacious kitchen. One of them took his place as musician, whistling and beating time with two sticks upon the floor. Several of the men came forward and executed various dances, capering, prancing and drumming with heel and toe upon the floor with astonishing agility and perseverance, though all of them had performed their daily tasks and had worked all the evening, and some had walked from four to seven miles to attend the corn shucking. From the dances a transition was made to a mock military parade, a sort of burlesque of our militia trainings, in which the words of command and the evolutions were extremely ludicrous. It became necessary for the commander to make a speech, and confessing his incapacity for public speaking, he called upon a huge black man named Toby, to address the company in his stead. Toby, a man of powerful frame, six feet high, his face ornamented with a beard of fashionable cut, had hitherto stood leaning against the wall, looking upon the frolic with an air of superiority. He consented, came forward, and demanded a bit of paper to hold in his hand, and harrangued the soldiery. It was evident that Toby had listened to stump speeches in his day. He spoke of 'de majority of Sous Carolina,' 'de interests of de State,' 'de honor of ole Barnwell district,' and these phrases he connected by various expletives and sounds, of which we could make nothing. At length he began to falter, when the captain, with admirable presence of mind, came to his relief, and interrupted and closed the harrangue with an hurrah from the company. Toby was allowed by all the spectators, black and white, to have made an excellent speech."

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1. CHARLESTON COTTON MILLS.

At a late meeting of the stockholders the following officers were elected for 1850: James Chapman President. Directors: J. H. Taylor, J. Welsman, J. Provost, Henry Cobia.

We passed an hour very pleasantly on Saturday afternoon in an examination of the flourishing establishment in the upper part of the city, known as the steam cotton mill. We have watched the progress of this enterprise with great interest, because we regard it somewhat in the light of an experiment. An experiment not merely to determine whether cotton could be profitably converted into cloth in our city, but an experiment upon the industrial habits of our people. It has often been asserted of southern industry, that it was not persistent or enduring; that our climate was enervating, and productive of lassitude, indolence and feebleness; and that if cotton mills were started they could not be carried on by southern operatives, and that therefore they would have to be imported from the North. Again, it was urged that the business was one unsuited to our tastes and pursuits, and could not successfully be introduced among us. For these and other reasons we have watched the progress of this enterprise with usual interest; and as those who have had the management of it have struggled on against every kind of difficulty, with undiminished ardor and confidence, we have given them our warmest sympathies; and now, when success has measurably crowned their efforts, we heartily congratulate them and the community, which has been, and will be, benefited by their enterprise and perseverance.

We were conducted over the mill by the intelligent and active superintendent, Gilbert Reed, Esq, who we learn has been instrumental in getting the establishment into its present admirable working condition, and who has brought the whole interior of this busy hive into system and order. While the mills at the North are running short time, or stopping work altogether, we are pleased to learn that the Charleston mill is driving every loom to its utmost capacity, and that its product per loom is now equal to the best mills in the country.

The goods manufactured at this mill are of very superior quality, having, during the last twelve months, been awarded three first class premiums; one from the Agricultural Society of South Carolina at the fair at Chester; one from the fair of the Franklin Institute at Philadelphia, and one from the fair of the South Carolina Institute held in Charleston.

This mill is one among many others which that eminent engineer, Gen. Chas. T. James, has erected within the last few years in the South and West. We learn with much satisfaction that his highly liberal offer to subscribe for half the stock of a $300,000 cotton mill, will insure at an early day the erection of a factory in our city on an enlarged scale, and which will compare favorably in style, finish and product, with any ever built in this country or Great Britian. The remarkably practical genius of Gen. James, his wide experience in all that concerns the cotton manufacture, and his careful study of all the questions connected with its successful introduction into the Southern States, give great value and interest to the conviction he has expressed and so strongly backed, in favor of the adaptation of Charleston for the prosecution of this great department of industry on an extensive scale. The extent to which he desires to identify himself with our manufactures is most gratifying proof of his perfect faith in their success, and may be considered as settling the question whether their profitable establishment is within our power.—*Charleston Mercury.*

2. COTTON FACTORIES IN THE WEST.

The following interesting statistics are on the authority of the Cincinnati Price Current:

We shall now notice the several cotton factories in the West, as far as we have information; and we believe, that, in making our inquiries, which we did by writing to the several parties, few were omitted; and as the facts presented were furnished chiefly by the proprietors of the mills, they may be relied upon as being very nearly correct.

In Cincinnati, Covington and Newport, there are five factories, viz.: Franklin mill, of Harkness, Fosdick & Strader; Pierce, Gould & Co.; J. C. Giesendorf; Covington cotton factory, and Newport cotton factory.

The Franklin factory has 10,000 spindles, 220 looms, manufactures 42,000 yards of brown sheeting weekly, consumes 1,800 bales of cotton per year, and employs daily 250 hands; steam power.

Gould, Pierce & Co., 2,500 spindles, and 32 looms, produces 300,000 yards of sheeting per annum, and 150,000 pounds cotton yarn; consumes 600 to 700 bales of cotton yearly, and employs daily 60 hands; steam and water power.

O'Shaughnessy & Co., 3,000 spindles, manufactures 13,500 yards 4-4 brown sheetings and 200 lbs. cotton yarns per week; consumes 900 bales cotton per year; employs daily 75 hands; steam power.

Covington cotton factory, R. Buchanan, agent, 2,600 spindles, makes yarn only; consumes 950 bales of cotton per annum; employs about 90 hands; steam power.

J. C. Giesendorf, 100 spindles, produces 5,000 lbs. yarns, wick and batting, [illegible] consumes 300 bales of cotton yearly, and employs 30 hands; water [illegible]

[illegible] spindles are all in operation, and in addition to these, Messrs. O'[illegible] & Co. intend to increase their number from 3,000 to 6,000; and Mr.

Giesendorf, who has just removed his machinery into a new building, purposes adding to the number of spindles, from time to time, until it is increased to 6 or 7,000.

The Cooper cotton factory, Dayton, 2,300 spindles, produces yarns; consumes 900 bales of cotton annually, and employs about 80 hands; water power.

Castalia manufacturing company, Castalia, Ohio, 1,700 spindles, 48 looms, 1,200 to 1,400 yards heavy brown sheetings made per day, consumes 312 bales of cotton annually; employs 35 to 40 hands.

Springfield cotton mill, Springfield, Ohio, 500 spindles, produces 90,000 lbs. yarns, carpet warp and batting, and consumes 200 bales of cotton annually; employs about 20 hands.

Maysville, Ky, cotton mill, A. M. January & Co., runs 3,700 spindles, produces cotton yarns only, consumes 1,000 to 1,200 bales of cotton per annum, employs 85 to 1,00 hands; steam power.

Brookville, Ind., J. Woods, runs 1,200 spindles, produces 600 lbs. yarns per week employs 30 hands; water power.

Steubenville, Ohio, G. E. & J. W. Warner, runs 4,700 spindles, produces 9,000 yards of brown sheetings and 15,000 lbs. yarn per week, employs 180 to 200 hands.

Zanesville cotton mill, Zanesville, Ohio, 1,744 spindles; produces 232,500 lbs. yarns, warps and batting per annum, consumes 250,000 lbs. cotton; steam power.

Miamisburg, Ohio, M. Cassady & Co., runs 500 spindles, produces 2,150 lbs. yarns, batting, &c., per week, and consumes 200 bales of cotton per year; employs 20 hands; water power.

Wellsville, Ohio, runs 2,000 spindles, produces yarns; consumes 750 bales of cotton per year.

Pittsburg Eagle factory, 6,000 spindles, produces yarns only; consumes 1,900 bales of cotton per annum.

Alleghany factory, 1,500 spindles, produces yarns, and consumes 600 bales of cotton per annum.

Penn mills 6,300 spindles, produces sheetings; consumes 1,500 bales of cotton per annum.

Star mills, 4,000 spindles, produces sheetings; consumes 1,200 bales of cotton per annum.

Wheeling manufacturing company, 2,000 spindles, produces sheetings; consumes 700 bales of cotton per annum.

Brighton, Pa., 1,000 spindles, produces sheetings, and consumes 400 bales of cotton per year.

Cannelton, Ind. (now receiving the machinery, and will be in operation about the 1st of May), capacity 10,800 spindles, estimated production 2,000,000 yards of No. 14 brown sheetings per annum.

There are, in addition to the above, mills at Bon Harbor, Lexington and Paris, Ky., Columbus and Dayton, Ohio, from which we have no statement, but from what we have been able to learn, their combined capacity is about 12,000 spindles.

It is seen by the above that we have in operation in this Western valley *eighty-nine thousand* spindles; and the additions to be made to factories in this city and vicinity, will, in another year, swell the number to near *one hundred thousand*!*

The consumption of cotton is near 22,000 bales per annum, which, at present prices, would cost about $1,300,000.* There is, in addition, considerable cotton consumed in the manufacture of batting, which we have not included in our statement.

The products of the mills noticed are all disposed of in the West. Those in and near this city find here a ready market for their cloth and yarns; and the demand, particularly for sheetings, is such that stocks do not accumulate. Considerable quantities of Pittsburg sheetings are also disposed of here; and still there is a market for Eastern sheetings, which are brought from Boston and sold as cheap as our own manufactures. This, however, does not pay, as Boston and Cincinnati prices are generally about the same.

Since the advance in cotton, manufacturers have been turning out their products at a loss, as the improvement in the price of the raw material is equal to about three cents per yard, while there has been only one cent per yard advance in the value of sheetings. This, of course, will not continue, as cotton must soon recede to its ordinary level; and the probability is, that, next season, the raw material will be lower than before the recent advance commenced, as the present high prices will stimulate growers to increase the productions to the utmost extent.

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* Subsequent statements of factories, not included in our first report, further increase the number of spindles to 100,220, and the consumption of cotton to 27,300 bales.

In our notice we may have omitted some mill in the section of country included in our statement; and if so, we shall feel obliged if some of our friends will advise us of the fact.

3. DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES.

We have before us samples of towels and table linen, manufactured in the Swedish colony, settled at Bishop Hill, Henry county, Illinois. They are really beautiful and valuable articles, just such as, we believe, every housekeeper would desire to possess. The ladies should inspect them, to appreciate their worth. They are made from flax grown in the colony; the thread is fine, even and well wove. Before us are samples of coarse and fine articles, and each is ornamented by a colored linen border of delicate and beautiful work.

In this society, they manufacture fine and coarse linens for all the purposes to which it is applied—for table covers, sheets, &c. We need not remind the housekeeper how much more durable and pleasant the domestic linen is for many purposes, than the imported article. At the same place, this industrious and thriving society are manufacturing a variety of articles, such as carpets, sacking, &c. The cholera, last year, carried off a number of the males almost before they had located themselves, and left a preponderance of widows, who employ themselves in needlework and ornamenting fabrics made for market.—*Mo. Republican.*

4. MINERAL RESOURCES OF ALABAMA.

We extracted, in our last, from the able railroad report of Mr. Troost, its internal improvement statistics, and now add to these extracts others upon the minerals of Alabama.

The carboniferous and silurian beds in Alabama, are exceedingly rich in their useful rocks and metals.

There are four extensive coal fields in Alabama, in striking distance of your railroad. They may be designated as follows: The "Tuscaloosa coal field," which is the greatest in area, lies in the valleys of the Warrior and its tributaries. The "Cahawba coal field," the southern boundary of which is at Centerville and Montevallo, occupies the valley of the Cahawba and its tributaries. The "Coosa coal field" is on the west side of the Coosa river, in the vicinity of Broken Arrow creek—and the fourth coal field is in DeKalb and Marshall counties, between the Tennessee and the Coosa rivers. The coal strata on the Warrior and its tributaries, ten of which have been discovered, are from ten to forty-eight inches thick, and are slightly inclined toward the valley of the river; those on the Cahawba, are from two to eight feet thick and are highly inclined, while those on Broken Arrow creek and in DeKalb and Marshall counties, are said to be from four to ten feet thick.

The coal, all of which is bituminous, of the three first-mentioned fields, has proved to be of an excellent quality, having been tested in steamships, gas works, founderies, factories, &c., and from the examinations which have been made there can be no doubt of its abundance.

Each and all of these coal fields are convenient and accessible to your railroad, particularly those on the Cahawba river and Broken Arrow creek, and in DeKalb and Marshall counties. The coal measures of the Cahawba will be in from 60 to 75 miles; of the Broken Arrow of from 120 to 130 miles; and of DeKalb and Marshall counties of from 170 to 195 miles of Selma by your railroad, with branch lines of from 5 to 15 miles long. The Warrior beds may be reached by a branch of 30 to 40 miles long, making their total distance to Selma from 80 to 90 miles.

In close proximity to the coal measures are inexhaustible and extensive beds of iron ore of the finest quality. In fact the counties of Bibb, Shelby Talladega, Benton, Cherokee, St. Clair, Jefferson and Tuscaloosa, abound in deposits of iron ore, not excelled in richness and extent. The ore has been tested and yields an excellent quality of iron. Notwithstanding the difficulties experienced for the want of suitable means of transportation to market [the cost of transportation to a navigable river being from $9 to $12 per ton], the ore is manufactured into iron in several localities with profit.

Another highly important material, which abounds in localities convenient to your railroad, throughout the carboniferous and silurian rocks, is the limestone. Some of the limestone of these beds furnish marble of excellent quality, and of beautifully variegated colors. Several varieties of blue and gray marble occur in Shelby county; in Talladega county a jet black marble; in Cherokee a buff-colored marble; and in Benton county a dove-colored marble has been found. These varieties of marble take a very fine polish, dress well, and will become very useful for building and ornamental purposes. A large portion of this limestone when burned, yields quick lime, equal in strength and whiteness to the Thomaston lime.

Large beds of gypsum have likewise been found. This article, so useful in agriculture, will also swell the freight. There are other productions of these formations deserving notice, such as hydraulic limestone, mill stones, whetstones, flag stones, lead and manganese.

In the metamorphic rocks in Talladega and Coosa counties, we find a beautiful and highly valuable white marble, and granite well adapted for building. The marble quarries of Dr. Gantt, situated in the southern part of Talladega county, convenient to the projected route of your road, are particularly worthy of being mentioned on account of the pure white saccharine marble which they yield in masses of great size.

A large quantity of iron is already produced in this portion of Alabama. The great cost of transportation at the present time, is a serious check upon this business.

The coal fields of Alabama must supply the Gulf of Mexico, which is soon to become the seat of a commerce vastly greater than what it now enjoys. Our recent acquisitions on the Gulf and on the Pacific will bring into that great inland sea the commerce of every part of the world.

5. IRON MANUFACTURE IN EAST MISSISSIPPI.

"EAST MISSISSIPPI IRON.—We were recently shown, by our old friend Judge Killen, specimens of fine looking *iron*, extracted from ore found in the vicinity of his residence, in Neshoba county. The Judge assured us that it was of the best quality, and that the ore existed in quantities which would be almost inexhaustible."—*Eastern Clarion.*

We had intended, at an earlier day, offering some remarks upon the above, from our excellent cotemporary, who has done, and is doing, much to develop the rich resources of the East.

The great difficulty presented to the manufacturing of iron, in Mississippi, is the absence of mineral coal. The first process is to reduce the iron ore into a metallic state, by means of a furnace, which is charged from the top with certain proportions of iron ore, coke and limestone. The limestone is used as a flux to the ore, and to promote its fusion. For fifteen tons of roasted iron ore, there are required twenty-two and a half tons of coke, and about six tons of limestone, which must be all intimately mixed together.

Formerly charcoal was used in the place of coke, but, since the abundance of mineral coal, and its greater cheapness, it is generally dispensed with. Where anthracite can be purchased at three dollars per ton, charcoal at five cents per bushel, and wood at two dollars per cord, to manufacture iron with coke, made from anthracite coal, would cost just half as much as charcoal or wood. We could not, then, compete with the North; and any attempt to avail ourselves of the rich deposits of iron ore in our State, would result in a failure to the capitalists who might embark in the enterprise.

Here are the obstacles to be met. If our friends in Neshoba can overcome them, iron may be made as well in Mississippi as in any other State in the Union. They can only be overcome by reducing the price of wood coal; for, so far as our observation goes, there is no mineral coal in Neshoba which can be profitably coked for the manufacture of iron. Wood, at fifty cents per cord, would make coal at two cents per bushel. If this cost is attained, iron may be manufactured at $30 per ton, and, as it cannot be shipped here from the North, or Europe, at less than about $45 dollars, we should make a profit of $15 per ton. Ten dollars profit per ton would make a productive investment. Say that 1,500 tons were made per annum, this would yield $15,000, at a profit of $15 per ton, the net average would be $22,500. These figures are evidently under the mark, and we are satisfied that, if the fuel can be obtained at the rates we have named, the capitalist who invests his money in the Neshoba iron will make a fortune. We speak from what we learn of the quality of the iron. The ore is represented to us as being very rich.

6. AMERICAN MANUFACTURES.

There has lately taken place at Paris, in one of the rooms of the Exchange, an exposition of American cotton fabrics; and an examination of these tissues may give an idea of the competition with which our French products are threatened by the manufacturers of the Union. One of our principal merchants, M. Lefort Gonsselin, after examining these specimens, has declared that American industry has made immense progress, and that that country bids fair to supplant, in the various markets of the world, France, England, and all the European States, in the sale of cotton fabrics. Nevertheless, if the Americans, having the advantage of possessing the raw article, can afford to sell cheaper than other nations, they are still an immense distance behind the French, as respects good taste, beauty of patterns, the shade and durability of dyes. They will succeed, perhaps, in driving us from the market, for the sale of ordinary articles, for which we have, already, such formidable competitions in the English. But it is the French manufacturers who will continue to supply whatever is intended for the consumption of the easy classes. In 1849, American fabrics consumed 517,000 bags; that is to say, 127,000 bags more than the French manufacturers used during the same year. In the United States the cotton manufacture is concentrated in six States—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut. These States count 729 establishments, in active operation, containing 60,546 looms, and 1,313,629 spindles. The hours of labor vary from eleven hours twenty-four minutes the minimum, to twelve hours forty-five minutes the maximum. These establishments are organized in the most perfect manner. Regularity, order and comfort, of which we have no conception in France, prevail in them. The working rooms are almost like convents. Most particular care is taken to remove the slightest idea of insubordination and immorality. Instruction and health are provided for with incessant watchfulness, and every individual who neglects his duty, or becomes addicted to intemperance, is rigorously and promptly excluded. From this results a double advantage. The persons exployed become rapidly rich, and the employers find themselves indemnified for the high prices they pay for labor, by the steadiness and intelligence of that labor.—*From the Paris Presse.*

7. THE GOLD PEN.

There has appeared an article, of some length, in the New York Tribune, headed *The Gold Pen, its History and Manufacture*, which we find to be curious and interesting, and of which (not being able to find room for the whole of it in our paper) we must be satisfied with laying before our readers a synopsis, which will put them in possession of the most material facts belonging to that branch of our national manufactures—the gold pen.

Mr. John Isaac Hawkins, a citizen of the United States, though long a resident of different European countries, chiefly of England, claims to be the inventor of what is called the gold pen, which, however, is rather a misnomer, it will be seen—the important part and feature of it, the point or nib, not being of gold. It was thought long ago, by Mr. Hawkins, that a pen might be manufactured of some lasting material, so as to be almost indestructible; that is, that it could be used without being worn out, or impaired, for an indefinite period a life time or longer. To discover this material, and to make it available, was the desideratum, and he dedicated nearly thirty years of his life to this object, trying, in the mean time, a great many substances, which were subjected to a great many experiments. The diamond being the hardest known substance, was first tried; but it could not be made to answer, the difficulty being to fasten, or solder it to the gold, so as to make it keep its place permanently. This could not be done, and there were other objections to it, too. The ruby was then tried, as being the next hardest jewel. A nib could be made of this, but it was not without objections, and was not considered to be hard enough. "Dr. Wallaston," says the Tribune, "had sent to a ruby pen manufacturer, in London, sundry specimens of rhodium, and the native alloy of iridium and osmium, minerals found in combination with platinum, with a request that a pen might be formed from each. Accordingly a few were made, but from the rhodium alone, the iridium being returned to Dr. W. by the manufacturer, with the remark that it was too hard to be worked into figure."

Here now was a starting point for Mr. Hawkins, from which to reach that point so desiderated by him, an indestructible nib, in the pursuit of which he had expended much time, capital and labor. He commenced making experiments on iridium, and satisfied himself that, as regarded hardness, it was just the thing he wanted. It was found to be much harder than ruby, for, being exposed to the action of diamond powder, rotating in a lathe at the rate of five thousand feet per minute, it "was slightly abraded in five minutes," and a ruby, submitted to the same test, was worn away to the same extent in one-third of the time. The next thing to be done, and the most difficult, was to form the nib of this material, and to fix it permanently to the point of the gold pen, which Mr. Hawkins, after much experiment and labor, succeeded in doing. This was about the year 1834, and "thus begins (says the Tribune) the actual history of the gold pen as such."

Iridium is the third heaviest metal, or mineral, so far known, we believe, being the next heaviest to gold, which is next to platinum. It is not malleable, and is worked with very considerable difficulty. It is soluble in muriatic acid, and takes its name from the variety of colors it assumes when undergoing the process of solution—iris being the Greek word for rainbow. hence iridium. It is found in Siberia and South America, not in great quantities, however, and is costly, the price varying from thirty to seventy-five dollars the ounce, and it has been sold as high as one hundred. In preparing it for pen points the waste is very great, not being less than seven-eighths, as it comes into the market. As yet, no means have been found of making the refuse, in any way, available, and, as it is not malleable nor fusible, but by the application of intense heat, as of the voltaic battery, it is questionable if this will ever be done.

The Tribune enumerates eighteen processes and manipulations, as belonging to the manufacture of the so-called gold pen, the first of which is the melting of the gold, the last the proving of the pen, when finished, by writing with it. The sixth process is the soldering of the nib to the gold part of the pen, which is done by the application of a "minute jet of flame," which supplies an intense heat.

It is stated that there are now, in the United States, about twenty establishments, more or less extensive, for the manufacture of gold pens. In the State of New York there are not less than a dozen, five or six of them being in the city, and in active operation. Some manufacturers melt gold three times a week. In one establishment they use about one thousand dollars per week. "Victoria sovereigns are generally used in preference to all other qualities of gold;" why, the Tribune does not say, nor do we, not knowing. Fine gold jewelry is used, too, and yet the metal for the pen is reduced by alloys of silver and copper to twelve, fourteen, or sixteen carats, which are but so many parts out of twenty-four—the number representing pure gold.

There are two factories, making but one establishment, one in New York, the other in Boston, that turn out one hundred and four thousand gold pens annually between them. It is supposed that about two hundred ounces of iridium are consumed, annually, for the pens manufactured in this country, though not more than thirty, probably, are actually used in the shape of pen points. Of course the point must be extremely minute; and yet, Mr. Hawkins says, "with fair usage, it is a pen for life." Let us be moderate, and suppose for a few years. That even is achieving much, as all will know, who have had experience, as regards the continual making, mending, splitting and spoiling, of the ancient, venerable, and still ever-to-be-held-in-respectful-remembrance, "gray goose quill."

When gold pens were first introduced into London they sold at £1 ($4 80) each, without a holder. In New York the regular price is $2 50, with silver holders, though they may be had, sometimes, at auction for much less. Mr.

Hawkins says the American manufacturers are ahead of the English, as regards ingenuity, which is evident from their inventing, "labor-saving tools and ready methods of working; while the sluggish and let-well-alone feeling of the English workmen, in my employ, formed a clog to the introduction of new tools and methods of working into my manufactory, even when plainly indicated by experience."

This, we have no doubt, is all true, and we think it quite likely that American pen manufacturers can purchase British gold, make it into pens, take them to London and undersell the London manufacturer, supposing them to be introduced free of import duty; which would not be the case, however, for English free trade principles have not yet got so far as to include gold pens.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1. ADVANTAGES OF PLANKROADS OVER RAILROADS.

1. Plankroads are more easily and cheaply constructed than railroads.

2. They are more easily kept in repair, and yield a larger and more certain return to the stockholders.

3. Produce can be carried over them at least twenty-five per cent. *cheaper* than on railroads.

4. They are particularly adapted to the southern States, because of the abundance of timber here, and the character of the power used.

5. They accommodate a larger number of people, because they can be carried almost to every man's door, while railroads cannot.

6. They tend to sustain a local population, and build up a home market in every neighborhood which they penetrate.

To these I may add that plankroads are better adapted to an agricultural country, because they can be constructed and kept in repair by the planters themselves; and, because the planters can *own* them and manage them so as to make the transient travel pay the expense of carrying their own cotton to market, and also return a handsome interest besides.

I know, Messrs. Editors, that many of your country readers particularly, look upon every man who advocates the construction of plankroads as a brainless visionary. They contend

1. That the timber will decay so soon in this climate, that the road will be rendered worthless in the few years at most.

2. That the roads will be so narrow as to be perfectly useless for all practical purposes, especially where we have negro drivers.

3. That the planters will not travel upon them in consequence of the *tolls* charged; but give preference to the common roads.

4. That the country is not sufficiently densely populated to furnish either trade or travel enough to sustain them.

I will answer these objections in order.

1. It will take no more timber to build a plankroad than to lay the superstructure of a railroad, and it will last at least one-third longer upon the former than upon the latter. The objection in regard to the decay of timber, therefore, is much stronger against the railroad than against plankroads. The weight is so immense, that to render the former safe for heavily laden cars, timbers have often to be thrown away before they are half decayed. This would not be the case with plankroads. In the northern States the planks used are of hemlock—a soft, sappy wood—and yet they last some ten or twelve years. It is but fair to conclude that yellow pine will last as long at the South as the hemlock will at the North. If this be conceded, the question is settled, because, even in the least densely settled sections of New York these roads are paying from 25 to 40 per cent. upon the cost of their construction, after laying up a reserved fund sufficient to rebuild them every ten years.

2. If eight feet be found to be too narrow for these roads at the South, it will be an easy matter, in consequence of the abundance of timber and the levelness

of the country, to increase the width to twelve, or even sixteen feet, and still to restrict their cost within the sum paid for their construction at the North. Eight feet at the North, where the population is much more dense, is found to be quite ample. The road is so well graded, so well drained, and kept in such thorough order, that wagons can turn out at any point with perfect convenience.

3. That planters will not pay the *tolls* to enjoy the benefits of these roads, no sane man can believe. Let us suppose a road constructed from Macon to Talbotton, say sixty-five miles in length. It now requires a six-horse team nearly four days to haul eight bales of cotton from Talbotton to Macon. At $5 per day, the cost of delivering these eight bales would be $20. By a plankroad the same team would deliver twenty bales in two days, or at a cost of $10. In one case the hauling costs $2 50 per bale; in the other only fifty cents per bale. It is plain that the planter or wagoner could afford to pay $1 per bale toll, and then save $1 per bale in addition to the saving in wear and tear of wagons and horses. Nothing is plainer than that men pursue their interest, and planters are just as quick to discover their interest as any other class of men. A road to Talbotton would concentrate at that point 20,000 bales of cotton, and a branch from it to the Waymanville factory would concentrate there 12,000 to 15,000 bales more. Can any man doubt that the planters would not gladly pay the tolls and use the road in preference to the common roads of the country? I think not.

4. The idea that the country is not densely enough populated to sustain such a road is equally incorrect. The roads themselves will soon supply the necessary density of population. This has been pre-eminently the case with railroads and canals. The increased value of property along the Erie canal, was more than sufficient to pay for its construction, and this increase was occasioned by the demand brought about by the influx of population.

2. PLANKROADS.

The following, taken from a recent report of O. G. Gates, Secretary of the Kentucky Board of Improvements, contains valuable and interesting information to those interested in road improvements:

1. The system of plankroads which originated in Russia, has since been adopted in Canada, and in many of our northern States entirely superceded the McAdam and Telford rock or gravel roads. The great success and value of the plankroad consists in the cheapness, in ease of draft, in speed, and in comfort to passengers.

2. The approved mode of construction thereof, is as follows: For a single track the planks (of pine, hemlock, oak, red elm, black walnut or sweet gum) should be eight feet long, and from three to four inches thick; they should be laid across the road at right-angles to its line. These planks are to rest on two longitudinal sills or sleepers, each four inches square, bedded in the earth to their full thickness. The earth should be fully kept up to the planks at every point, in order to prevent confined air resting in any vacant space beneath the planks—no pin or spike is needed to confine the plank to the sleepers, their weight being sufficient to keep them firm. There should be placed on the upper surface, a coating of sand an inch thick. There should be provided for a single track, turn-out places—and to effect this, an earthern road must be banked up ten or twelve feet wide on one side, and two or three on the other; each embankment should be made flush with the ends of the plank, and thence sloping outward so as to carry off the water, as perfect drainage is the great secret in the construction of any kind of road. The plank should be laid even, with part thereof projecting two or three inches beyond the general line of the road, in order to prevent ruts made by wheels at the junction of the plank and each turn out. And if the bed on which the planks are to be laid is a new one, it would be better to be traveled one season before they are laid down. One track, with the supplementary earth road thus formed, will be sufficient for all ordinary travel. And, if the tonnage transported on the road be chiefly in one direction, the track should be laid on that side of the road which will enable the loaded teams to keep it, and thereby force the unloaded ones to do all the turning out.

3. To make a double track, all that is needed, will be to make two tracks each eight feet wide, or one sixteen feet wide. The former is preferred. For

the sixteen feet track, three or five longitudinal sills are required, each to be four by six inches, and laid edgewise and embedded in trenches six inches deep. These timbers should be from fifteen to twenty feet long. Great advantage is obtained in the construction of the double track with long plank, by giving the road bed a slight convexity of two or three inches in the center, and springing the plank down to the outside sills, and attaching them thereto by half inch spikes or nails three inches long.

4. The duration of plankroads is from eight to twelve years; this matter, however, depends entirely upon decay from rot, and not by the surface wear of the plank. The sand which is spread upon the track when finished, protects the wood from the shoe soles of the horses (which cause most of the wear), and soon penetrates the grain of the plank, until, with the woody fibers and the deposits on the road, a tough elastic covering is formed, whereby the plank is saved from the further wear. Experience teaches that one-half the wear and tear of seven years occurs in the first year. Therefore, it is a matter of great importance on these roads to have small tollage, in order to invite such an amount of travel as will promote their wearing out instead of rotting.

5. The cost of the plankroad greatly depends on its locality. But it will be found the following estimate will approximate to an average valuation, to wit:

For one mile of road with a single track (made with plank eight feet wide and three inches thick), will require 126,720 feet board measure of plank, and of sills 4 by 4, 14,080, making in all of lumber 140,800 feet, and costing say five dollars per thousand, would equal the sum of seven hundred and four dollars. The laying and grading will cost from 30 cents to a dollar per rod, or from ninety-six dollars to three hundred and twenty dollars per mile. The earth work, sluices, bridges and contingencies, admit of no average estimate. Therefore, without them, and one hundred dollars per mile for engineering superintendence, and one hundred dollars for gate houses, we have the total cost per mile from one thousand to one thousand two hundred and twenty-four dollars.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1. THE WABASH VALLEY—ITS OUTLETS AND INLETS.

No sane man, that we have heard, disputes the fact that the Wabash valley is one of the most fertile and inexhaustible agricultural districts in the United States. This has always been its general reputation with special verifications whenever an observing and intelligent stranger has visited that region. And no one can ever have been engaged in business at New Orleans, or as a trader between that city and the shipping points on the Ohio river, without hearing of *the Wabash glut*—an outpouring of western produce from that rich valley, with the early spring freshets, which made it necessary for persons engaged in the purchase and sale of the various articles embraced, to "stand from under" the load that the hoosiers were heaping upon their shoulders.

But of late years, the inhabitants of the Wabash valley have shown a strong inclination to go extensively into *manufacturing* operations—for that term is applied, in commercial parlance, to the putting up of pork and the kegging of lard—and now the pork prices of Porkopolis itself are bearded in their very dens, at New Orleans, by the hoosiers, who have added to the usual articles heretofore making up the celebrated "Wabash glut," barrel and bulk pork, lard, flour, &c.

But even this does not seem to satisfy our friends of the Wabash valley. Among our advertisements to-day, may be found a notice of "*Water Power to let*," by the Wabash Navigation Company at Vincennes. This power amounts to a propelling force sufficient for 400 run of 4½ feet stones, and may be applied on either side of the river. Vincennes is a point at which grain can be very [illegible] delivered, and no one can doubt, that out of the mouth of the Wabash will hereafter go heavy and constant shipments of flour and meal.

The works erected at Vincennes, by the Wabash Navigation Company, are one of the most important improvements yet made on any of the rivers of the West. Before the erection of the dam and lock at the rapids, the Wabash was navigable by only a very small class of boats, and for only a few months each year. Since the completion of that improvement, boats of good size have been able to pass the rapids, *every month in the year*, and a direct and regular trade has been successfully opened with New Orleans, Cincinnati, Pittsburg and other important points. With reference to this improvement, an Indiana correspondent communicated a number of very interesting facts some weeks ago, for which we are under obligations to him. His communication was inadvertently lost sight of soon after its reception, but is not the less interesting now than it would have been if published then. He says:

"The Wabash Navigation Company was chartered by Indiana and Illinois in the winter of 1846 and 1847; preparations for the work were made in the fall of 1847, and it was intended that it should be completed in the fall of 1848. The lock was completed, and the dam was nearly finished, when all work was stopped by the flood, and a part of the dam was washed away; in the fall of 1849 the work was resumed, and the dam was completed about the first day of November last. The lock is the largest in the world—being sufficient to pass a boat 50 feet in width and 230 feet in length; a little longer and considerably wider than the Louisville lock. The stock of the Company is mostly owned at Vincennes. In consequence of the partial destruction of the dam in 1849, at certain stages of the water, steamboats and flatboats could and did safely pass through the dam. But the dam as it was did increase the water on the rapids; and hence at certain other states of the water the lock was used; and hence, too, there was an increased steamboat navigation on the river in 1849. *Steamboats passed the lock at the rapids of the Wabash in each month of the year* 1849. The following statement is taken from the reports of the collector of tolls, on file with John Ross, Esq., secretary of the company. The steamboat passages through the lock in each month of 1849 were as follows: January, 8; February, 11; March, 35; April, 35; May, 26; June, 4; July, 2; August, 4; September, 2; October, 4; November, 3; December, 36—total 152 passages, or 76 steamboat trips up and down, proved by the tolls paid. How many passed through the breach in the dam is not known, but probably as many more. The following is a continuation of the above statement to the last report. January, 1850, 51; February to the 22d, 45; total 96 passages. And the following is a statement of the whole business for the present season: November, 3; December, 36; January, 51; February to the 22d, 45; total 135 passages. The writer has himself seen, lately, the following boats in the Wabash with full cargoes loaded for or at New Orleans: Tribune, Globe, Dove, North Carolina and Warrior. On the evening of the 20th February, there were three boats at the Vincennes landing; one from New Orleans, one from Cincinnati, and one from Lafayette; at the stage of water at that time, but for the dam, there would not have been more than three feet six inches on the rapids. It is well known here, that Vincennes packed pork, shipped by steamboat to New Orleans, was on sale at Boston on the last of February—and from the reports above mentioned, it appears that toll has been paid this season on 4,115,131 lbs. of bulk pork, and on 36,647 barrels of pork: less than half the quantity packed on the river."

A report made some time since the statement of our correspondent came into our possession, shows the business of the Wabash improvement for the period of five months—commencing on the first of December last, and ending on the first of May instant. The total number of steamboats that passed the lock within this period, was 245; the total number of flatboats, 140. The number of passengers moving up and down during this time, is stated at 2,650.

Among the articles of freight passed through the lock during the period of five months above specified, were 50,735 barrels of pork, 7,666,578 lbs. bulk pork and bacon, 1,994,645 lbs. lard, 1,483 live hogs, 129 cattle, 1,974 dozen poultry, 325,794 bushels of corn, 1,000 bushels wheat, 55,092 bushels oats, 1,484 bushels rye, 82 bushels barley, 18,613 barrels salt, 6,278 sacks salt, 1,290 barrels whisky, 3,065 barrels molasses, 7,339 barrels flour, 161 barrels apples, 2,852 bushels potatoes, 319 barrels lime, 93½ tons of hay, 145,338 feet lumber, 20,000 staves, 21,185 hoop poles, 8,574,081 lbs. merchandise, groceries, &c.

The descent of the Wabash at Vincennes, is about 9 feet within a distance of three miles. The height of the dam raised is 13 feet, which gives a supply of 4½ feet water in the channel over the rapids when the river is at its lowest stage. We wish to call to this fact the particular attention of the "well enough but tardy" friends of a railroad communication between Cincinnati and the Wabash valley. By the excellent improvement at Vincennes, boats 50 feet wide, 230 feet long, and drawing 4½ feet water, can navigate the Wabash at all seasons of the year when there is no obstruction by ice.

This being so, it is not difficult to see, that unless the trade of that rich and fast populating country shall soon get a set in this direction over an iron track, it will get a set by water to the Ohio river, and thence to New Orleans and Pittsburg, which all the railroads that can be built afterward will find it very difficult to interfere with.

As it is, a large portion of the products of the Wabash will hereafter find their way to a market in steamboats by the natural outlet. Another large portion of them will find their way East by the outlet of the Wabash and Erie canal. If Cincinnati is ambitious to obtain and hold any considerable part of them, and also to supply the central section of the Wabash valley with groceries, dry goods and small manufactures, she must soon move in the matter of an iron outlet, or her efforts will all be too late.

2. INTERESTING COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

The States of Central and South America are destined to play a conspicuous part in the annals of trade hereafter, and everything that tends to throw light upon their political and commercial condition, is not only sought after with avidity, but is read by all classes with particular interest. The last steamer from England brought us many glowing newspaper speculations, with regard to these "sparsely populated colonies and independencies," and not exaggerated accounts of their value to European markets, should the American Senate take a proper view of the subject, and ratify the Nicaragua treaty. That convention having been confirmed, will naturally open a new chapter in American maritime affairs, and the English journals are not wrong in ascribing as much importance to these insolated States, as they are given credit for. Annexed will be found the value of the exports from this country and Great Britain to South America, and a statement of the population of the several districts according to Humboldt's calculation:

	AMOUNT OF TRADE WITH		
	Great Britain.	*United States.*	*Population.*
Patagonia,	$ 2,000	$ 1,000	
Chili,	4,477.543	1,722,457	1,250,000
Bolivia,	6,000	15,000	1,500 000
Peru,	2,500,000	93,195	1,500,000
Ecuador,	250,000	330,000	600,000
New Grenada,	756,000	244,400	1,750,000
Venezuela,		431.421	1,000,000
The Guianas,	3,000,000	821,489	200,000
Brazil,	23,000,000	2,838,380	6,000,000
Cisplatine Republic,	3,865,362	134,638	400,000
Argentine Republic,	2,000,000	595,518	1,200,000
	$39,856,905	$7,218,558	15,400,000

Add to above, central America,..............$50,156 Great Britain; $112,480 United States.

Great Britain, it will be seen, supplies manufactures, &c., to the amount of $40,000,000, while the whole of our exports are computed, by official returns for 1849, at less than $8,000,000. Now, it is no less remarkable, that of this $40,000,000, thirty millions are paid to our transatlantic rival for the growths and products of this country, being for fabrics from our own cotton, which were sent to British looms, and then returned for barter and exchange, past our ports, to those of South America. I draw attention to this fact, because it is one not generally known; and hence occurs the question, whether it is not a singular policy that permits this advantage to a rival, when the same benefits might result to us directly, by manufacturing a portion of our cotton, and sending them thither for barter, instead of to the looms of Great Britain.

Appended will also be found the value of the exports to the Bermudas and the West Indies, including Cuba, which may be mentioned in this connection.

These statistics show, if nothing else, the vast field still open to competition in our own waters.

EXPORTS TO

	By Great Britain.	*By United States.*
British West Indies,	$20,640.000	$3,935,834
Hayti,	1,600,000	532,577
Cuba and other West Indies,	7,700,000	6,335,590
Total,	$29,940,000	$10,804,001
Cuba alone,	$2,300,000	$4,641,145

I stated in a late communication that the population of Cuba, white and black, amounted to less than 2,000,000. It may be of interest to specify more particularly the trade of the island. According to the custom-house returns of 1849, the transactions were as follows. I use round figures:

EXPORTS.

Sugar,	lbs.,	280,000,000	Cigars,	lbs.,	20,000,000
Coffee,	"	76,000,000	Rum,	pipes,	4,000
Wax,	"	1,250,000	Molasses,	"	98,000
Leaf Tobacco,	"	2,500,000	Estimated value,		$14,000,000

IMPORTS.

I will not specify the imports nor the countries from which obtained.

Suffice that their estimated value for the same year, was	$15,000,000
Total value of exports and imports,	$29,000,000

A pretty fair commercial transaction for a white population of five or six hundred thousand.

It only remains to add the commerce of Mexico, and we will have the relative value of the exports of this country and Great Britain to the ports on this continent, and those of the West Indies.

The exports to Mexico on British account, are stated in value at	$3,750.000
Value of exports to the United States,	$1,047,999

We, therefore, recapitulate as follows:

EXPORTS TO

	From United States.	*From Great Britain.*
South America,	$ 7,218,558	$39,856.905
Central America,	112,480	50,156
West Indies, &c.,	10,804,001	29 940,000
Mexico,	1,047,999	3,750,000
Of each country,	$19,183,038	$73 507.061
		19,183,038
Aggregate value,		$92,780,099

Respectfully, Henrico.

3. PITTSBURG STEAMBOAT BUILDING.

The Pittsburg Gazette of Friday last, contains the following statement of the steamboats and keelboats built at that port from the 1st of January to 31st of May, 1850, as entered at the Custom House:

	Names.	*Captains.*	*Tonnage.*
January	4—Saranak No. 2,	Wm. McIutyre,	295 55-95
"	5—Hungarian,	R. E. Neal,	279 25-95
Feb'ry.	16—Buckeye State,	S. J. Reno,	393 67-95
"	27—Kentucky,	S. D. Maclane,	139 27-95
"	23—Cincinnati,	W. J. Kountz,	831 5-95
"	28—Clara Fisher,	Wm. H. Gordon,	108 6-95
March	2—Keystone State,	C. Stone,	337 33-95
"	11—Alleghany Belle,	J. Hauna,	97 48-95
"	19—Milton,	J. B. Davis,	158 22-95
"	19—Navigator,	Wm. Dean,	154 53-95
"	26—Union,	C. C. Speller,	95 94 95
April	20—Washington,	W. W. Martin,	154 42 95
"	26—Youghiogheny,	Jas. Marsh,	65 34-95

	Names.	*Captains.*	*Tonnage.*
May	7—*M. Hoffman,	J. M. Woodward,	493 4-95
"	18—Federal Arch,	G. W. Bowman,	195 83-95
"	18—Robt. Rogers,	E. Butcher,	178 76-95
"	29—Accommodation,		84 18-95
"	29—Chief Engineer,	O. Lenis,	67 88-95
"	29—Birmingham,		77 63-95
"	31—Fleetwood,	Wm. Conley,	212 70-95

Five flats and one keelboat were built and entered during the above period.

4. EXCHANGE—FALL OF GOLD.

There is probably no question which, being purely financial, is less understood by financial men than the simple one of exchange, with which they daily have to do, but the nature of which they do not bear in mind. Thus, we are daily quoting exchange on England at, say, 9 per cent. premium, when the fact is, that the price is ⅔ per cent. *discount*. If you ask an exchange dealer why it is, he tells you that is the nominal *par;* but what constitutes the nominal or the real par he has no *time* to explain. On the occasion of a late debate before the finance committee of the House of Representatives, a member of that committee gravely asked a representative, a banker of high financial reputation, from a neighboring State, why it was that money is worth so much here that we have to pay 9 per cent. premium? The questioned replied that the premium was "nominal," being calculated upon a "nominal" par—but being unable to explain what nominal meant in that relation, the committee-man wisely came to the conclusion that financial sagacity was attempting to bamboozle him. As gold will now, probably, become a staple export from this country, and its changing value will call speedily for a readjustment of the "standard," we have thought proper to enter into some examination of the subject here, as matter that must speedily affect the importing interest.

Most countries, it is known, use the precious metals as currency, but the United States alone make both metals and coins, of all nations, a legal tender. In Europe, almost all the nations have silver alone as a legal currency. England, on the other hand, has gold alone, with silver to the amount of 40 shillings only. The United States make both metals a tender. Now, it is obvious that, to ascertain what a *par* of exchange is, it is requisite to know what the standard coin of one country is worth in another at the same time. But the value of both metals is always changing in relation to each other. When the mines of America were discovered, gold was worth ten of silver. The new supplies of the latter metal diminished its relative value, until, at the close of the last century, one ounce of gold was worth fifteen of silver. Now, in coining, all countries vary the legal relative value of silver. In the United States it was 15 to 1; in England, 14½ to one; in Hamburg, 15 to 1; in Paris 15½ to 1; in Madrid, 16 to 1. Now, it will be observed, that the state of the markets for exchange affects the value of these metals relatively: a demand for gold will raise its relative value, and for silver likewise. During a part of the eighteenth century, Spanish pillar dollars circulated in these then colonies, and in London they were worth 4*s.* 6*d.* each—that is to say, $4 44.4 were a pound sterling. Since that time, silver has fallen in value until it came to be worth 4*s.* 10*d.* per ounce, or 4*s.* 2*d.* each dollar—making the sovereign $4 87½; but this changing value was not expressed in dollars and cents per ℔., but in per cent.—and this erroneous expression has perpetuated the error.

Since the commencement of the present century, both the standards of England and the United States have undergone a change. In 1816 a complete new coinage took place in England, by which the value of coin was advanced 6½ per cent.—that is to say, before that time one pound troy of standard gold, 22 carats, was coined into 44½ guineas; after that, into 46 29.40 sovereigns. From a pound troy of silver, 62 shillings had been coined; afterward 66 shillings. This latter was higher than the market price of silver, and designed to keep those coins in the country. Of course this change affected the relative value to United States coins, and the gold *par* between the countries has changed three times. Thus, under the law of 1790, the eagle of $10 contained 247.5 grains pure gold, or 270 grains standard, and the English guinea at that time 118.55 grains pure gold, or 128 grains standard, and was worth, as compared to the eagle, $4 76 In 1792, a law of Congress ordered the custom house to value the English coins at 100 cents for every 27 grains actual weight, which was valuing the guinea at $4 74. When the English coinage was changed, in 1816, the sovereign contained 113.11 gains, and the eagle remaining the same, the par was $4 56 for gold—consequently, very little gold came here, and nearly all the coinage was of silver. It also happened that the relative value of gold to silver from 15 to 1 had declined to 16 to 1, which aided the change in the British coins in sending the gold from this country. A change became necessary in the United States standard, and, in 1834, the gold bill did for our currency, what had been done for that of England by act of Parliament, 1816—that is to say, the pure gold in the eagle was reduced from 247.5 to 232 grains, at which rate the par of gold between here and England was raised to $4 87.5. These changes are seen in the following table:

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* The steamer Martin Hoffman, the 493 tons vessel entered in the above list, is a propeller. She was built and fitted out here, expressly for the Atlantic Ocean, to run as a packet, between New York and the West Indies. She was a most superb steamer, and will be an ornament to the trade. Another vessel of the same stamp, will, in a short time, be fitted out at Pittsburg, belonging to the same company, and designed for the same trade.

UNITED STATES AND BRITISH COINS.

	EAGLE.		SOVEREIGN.		
	Weight.	*Pure gold.*	*Weight.*	*Pure gold.*	*Relative par.*
1792,	grs. 270	grs. 247.5	grs. 128	grs. 118.65	$4 76
1816,	" 270	" 247.5	" 123	" 113.11	4 56
1834,	" 258	" 232.0	" 123	" 113.11	4 87
1837,	" 258	" 232.2	" 123	" 113.11	4 86

In the United States, the silver remaining the same, the taking of 15 grains of gold out of the $10 gold piece, raised the relative value of silver to 16 to 1, and this seems to have been about the true gauge hitherto. Now, it will be observed that London is the great market for silver whence Europe supplies herself. It is, there, not money but merchandise. When there is a demand for it on the continent, it rises in price, and of course, like any other merchandise, it is sent to the place where it sells best. As an instance, in 1829, dollars sold in London at 4*s*. 9*d*. per ounce: $1000 weigh 866 ounces. At the same time dollars were par in New York. The French revolution of 1830 caused a demand, and dollars rose in London to 4*s*. 11½*d*. per ounce, and to 2½ per cent. premium in New York—just as cotton or any other article rises here, when there is a demand there. Now, suppose a merchant owes in London £1,000, and the currency here being dollars, he is to remit them in payment. Dollars are not money in London, and he looks at the last quotation and finds that new dollars sell at 4*s*. 10*d*. per ounce: as $1,000 weigh 866 ounces, they are then worth 4*s*. 2*d*. or 50*d*. each; consequently, to pay £1,000 requires $4,800, and to send them there, according to the pro forma of an actual shipment under our money head for last week, will cost $200 more—say $5,000. Instead of doing this, he buys a bill of exchange, for which the account will run thus:

A. to B.	*Dr.*
For bill due on London, £1,000,	$4,444 44
Advance, 9 per cent.,	399 09
	4,844 33
Brokerage, ¼ per cent.,	12 11
	$4,856 44

Now, this bill, at 9 per cent. premium, has cost him $142 56 less than the expense of sending dollars, or *less* than *par*, notwithstanding the absurd manner of making out the bill. Again, if, say a stock bond for $1,000 is sold in London at what is called par—$4 44 per pound—the payment is £225, for which $1,078 dollars may be bought in the market, which is $4 84 per pound. If the 225 sovereigns are brought home, they are worth $4 87½ here. The movement of the metals never takes place either way, however, until the variation of the exchange will cover the cost. Thus, sovereigns cannot be sent from London to the United States when exchange is over 5½ per cent. premium, and cannot go back when it is less than 10¼—being a range of nearly 5 per cent.; and American gold cannot go under 11⅛. It is now probable that, from the supply of gold, instead of silver continuing to fall it will rise in value, and, perhaps, get back to th par of $4 44. Many of the countries of Europe, as Holland, for instance, are abandoning gold as a standard in this view; and it may become expedient for the United States to abandon silver for large amounts and adhere only to gold.

5. DECISIONS OF THE NEW ORLEANS CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

[New Orleans Chamber of Commerce, before a special committee: Present, Chas. Briggs 2d Vice President. Messrs. M. Greenwood, Wm. Mure, W. S. Pickett, G. A. Holt. Prehn, Clegg & Co. *vs.* Wright, Williams & Co.]

This is a claim for £90 7*s.* 3*d.* sterling, the alleged amount of difference in value between 10 bales—part of a lot of 96 bales—of cotton, sold as "ordinary" by defendants to plaintiffs, but which the latter assert turned out to be false packed and deceptive, and the sale of which resulted in a loss of the sum now claimed.

It appears by the document submitted to the committee, that the whole purchase, of which the 10 bales in question formed a part, consisted of 243 bales, which were classed by the broker, Mr. Schmidt, as follows: 23 bales fully middling, 68 middling, 73 good ordinary, 69 ordinary, 6 stained and 4 low ordinary.

The plaintiffs assert that the spinners in England, for whom the cotton was purchased, on opening the 69 bales of ordinary, found the 10 bales complained of fraudulently packed, so as purposely to deceive the buyer—a very small quantity of good cotton being on the top and bottom, while the bulk of the bale was gin dirt and dust, not worth the carriage.

The plaintiffs' claim is supported by a certificate of the foreman of the spinners, for whom the cotton was purchased, who declares these 10 bales to be false packed and worth only two pence half-penny per pound, while the remainder of the lot was worth seven pence per pound; also, by a certificate to the same effect, by a person named Richard Wight, who is described by the plaintiffs as a respectable merchant in the trade. This latter certificate is not sworn to, and there is no consular certificate to any of the papers. The only testimony offered on either side, is that of Mr. Schmidt, the plaintiffs' broker, who bought the cotton, and the samples drawn by him at the time of the purchase, together with the samples, of the 10 bales in dispute, returned from England. Mr. Schmidt testifies that, in classing cotton purchased by him, he never puts *mixed cotton* in any *regular class*, but either altogether rejects it, or classes it by itself, dependent on the terms of the contract. He further testifies, that the difference of value between the lowest and the best cotton in each separate sample exhibited, of these 10 bales, does not exceed three or four cents per ℔. in this market.

The committee have carefully examined the samples, and the testimony presented to them, and are of opinion, that they are altogether insufficient to establish the identity of the cotton. The plaintiffs' own witness, Mr. Schmidt, distinctly states that he would never have put "mixed cotton," such as is contained in these 10 bales, among ordinary cotton, nor in any other regular class, and yet in no other way could they possibly have got into the lot of 69 bales, among which they are said to have been found, but by his act. There are two qualities in each of the samples of these 10 bales—one which, if they were false packed, would, of course, have been placed outside fully middling quality—the other, below low ordinary, and by no method of drawing samples known to the trade here, could these bales, thus constructed, have found their way into the ordinary class of this purchase. The whole declaration of the foreman of the spinners is at variance with the testimony of the plaintiffs' broker here, and with the evidence of the samples themselves; he says, that "each bale was merely coated with the description it ought to contain," whereas, if they were coated at all, for the purpose of deceiving, it could *not* have been with the description it ought to contain, for there was none such in the bales, but with a class either better or worse, for, as before stated, these 10 bales, if correctly represented by the samples, contained cotton either entirely above or entirely below the class "ordinary," to which they are said to have belonged. That part of the declaration of this witness, in which he asserts there is a difference of 4½*d.*, or nearly nine cents per pound, between the 10 bales and the other cotton in the shipment, is equally at variance with the evidence of Mr. Schmidt (who testifies that the difference does not exceed 3 to 4 cents per pound) and the appearance of the samples exhibited to the committee—and, under these circumstances, the committee unanimously award, That the claim of the plaintiffs be dismissed, and that they pay the costs of this arbitration.

CHAS. BRIGGS, MOSES GREENWOOD,
G. ARNOLD HOLT, W. S. PICKETT.
WM. MURE,

[Before the committee of arbitration: Present, C. W. Phillips, E. H. Pomroy, J. M. Savage, R. B. Sumner and P. H. Skipwith. New Orleans, June 4, 1850. N. R. Harback *vs.* Kennett & Dix.]

The plaintiff, in this case, claims of the defendants $216.37, being, as he alleges, loss sustained by him on a purchase, from defendants, of eighty barrels of lard, in consequence "of bungling and imperfect construction of said barrels," whereby there was a greater actual tare than that allowed (18 per cent.), and a leakage, as proved by the weight when sold, of 1,725 pounds.

It appears, in evidence, that the plaintiff received the lard from defendants, May 22, 1849—shipped it to Boston and sold it, September 7, 1849—statement of loss, weight, etc., was made to him, by Wm. Thwing & Co., January 9, 1850—that the empty barrels weighed 5,375 pounds, averaging about 67 pounds each—that the difference between the actual tare, and the tare agreed upon (18 per cent.) was 1,681 pounds—and the loss, in the weight of the lard, as proved by the weight in Boston, was 1,725 pounds.

It also appeared in evidence, that this lard was put up in what were called, in the trade, country packages—that such barrels are usually clumsily and unskillfully made, frequently weighing here 62 lbs. each, and that lard when put up in such packages, does not sell for as much as when put up in pork-house barrels, as the better kind of packages is called; many parties altogether refusing to buy lard put up in country barrels, and others, when buying in such barrels, taking it at a price equal to ⅛c. per pound less than they would give for the same article in pork-house barrels—that, tare allowed at that time varied from 16 to 18 per cent.—that the per cent. of tare agreed upon was conventional and was not guaranteed, nor even expected to be equal to the actual tare—that the weight of a lard barrel, in Liverpool, would, necessarily, be much greater than it was here, on account of its being more thoroughly saturated with lard—that the leakage of lard barrels, when shipped from this port in the summer season, is, necessarily, very great, even in the most perfect packages—that the difference, in appearance, between country barrels and pork-house barrels is so great, that no person, at all conversant in the trade, can mistake the one for the other—that the condition and kind of packages, as well as the per centage of tare allowed, were quite as much elements of the price agreed upon, as the quality of the lard.

The committee can see no shadow of claim for reclamation on account of leakage—if the plaintiff bought and received barrels in bad order, he, of course, paid a corresponding price; but there is no proof that the barrels were in bad order when received—neither do the committee think, that he has any claim for extra tare. He must have been aware, when he bought the lard, that itw as put up in country barrels, of "bungling construction" varying very much in the actual tare, and, of consequence, a corresponding price. The committee, therefore, unanimously award,

That the claim of the plaintiff be dismissed, he paying the costs of the arbitration. P. H. SKIPWITH, CHAS. W. PHILLIPS, EDW. H. POMEROY.

6. THE COFFEE TRADE WITH BRAZIL.

The aggregate exports of coffee from Rio Janeiro, for 1848, were 806,900 bags. Exports from January 1, to October 31, 1849, 492,430 bags—from October 31, to November 26, 1840, 81,167 bags; vessels loading, 45,000 bags; to leave in December, about 100,000 bags—equal in all to 718,597: which show a deficit, for 1849, of 88,303 bags.

The crop of the present year is estimated to be short about 400,000 bags, but the growing crop is expected to be immense, and will come to market early in 1850. The shipments to New Orleans, New York, Boston, Baltimore and Philadelphia, amount to 134,007 bags.

In this connection, we find the number of vessels which have sailed from Rio, for United States ports, with coffee, from 1st January to 26th November, 1849, make a grand total of 245,000 bags. Valued at $17 per bag (say per average), $4,165,000.—*New York Express.*

LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1. THE SCIOTE LOVERS.

A FRAGMENT: BY P. H. H., OF CHARLESTON.

THE following little poem is founded on the massacre at *Scio*, the most beautiful and fertile island of the Grecian archipelago. The revolting details of this most horrible of the many tragedies that characterized the struggle of the Greeks for independence, are too well known to need a recapitulation here.

'T WAS the hour when holy and earnest Thought,
With Devotion's incense-breathings fraught,
Moveth the heart that is weighed with care
To pour forth its mingled griefs in prayer:
'T was the hour when the wild and hardened soul
Grows soft 'neath the sweet and mild control
Of feelings that rise with a sudden thrill,
Bidding Passion's dark tide be still—
When Memory doth fondly and sadly roam
O'er the scenes and pleasures of childhood's home,
And hopes that have gladdened life's weary way
Come back with a warmer and brighter ray.

Not a sound was heard but the beach-bird's cry,
Flitting the stately palm groves by,
And the murmuring voice of the evening breeze,
That sighed o'er the waves of the twilight seas,
As the sun-beams were casting a farewell smile
On the rock-girt coast of *Scio's* isle.

Where the banian reared its leaves on high,
With a graceful curve to the cloudless sky,
And the citron and olive a cooling shade
Beneath their umbrageous boughs had made,
There reclined, entranced 'mid the peaceful scene,
Two beings, as pure of heart, I ween,
As ever have loved in life's young day,
Ere the dews of its morning have passed away.
O! they loved with the first warm love of youth,
Its fervent trust and its earnest truth—
And they deemed that the world was an Eden wild,
Where forever the spirit of Gladness smiled,
Shedding odors sweet from her tireless wing,
Like the balmy breath of the early spring;
For their hearts, that were strangers to wo and strife,
Knew nought of this barren and restless life.

The moon rose broad from the circling sea,
Sublime in its hushed tranquility,
And her rays were reflected so calm and bright,
They looked like a path to the Land of Light.

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OSCAR bent down o'er the maiden fair,
And whispered a word in her listening ear—
And the sudden and crimson blush confest
The ardent love of an innocent breast.
He gazed on her glowing and tender face,
On the eye's mild beam and her form of grace,
And he thought he would cherish his bride till death,
And bless *her* name with his latest breath.

Hark! heard you the sound that passed by so near,
On the rustling wings of the evening air?
'T was not the fisher's light song of glee,
In its strains of careless harmony—
'T was not the gay laugh at a festive board—
'T was the war-shout deep of a reckless horde,
That had come, like fiends from their darksome cell,
To stain this pure isle with the work of hell.
OSCAR turned with a sudden start,
But stilled not the throb of his boding heart,
For an anxious burden lay heavy there,
And arose in his bosom a thought of fear.

List! list again! 't was a dreadful cry!
So wild in its thrilling agony!
Young lovers, methinks it is time to fly—
Speed on, speed on! if ye would not die.

Fleet as a roe on the mountain side,
The youth leaped light to his trembling bride—
His arms round her yielding form he wound,
And sped for life o'er the broken ground.
Let him reach but yon hut by the billowy wave,
And his precious burden he yet may save,
For the skiff of the fisherman rides the tide—
Hasten on! hasten on! why do ye bide?

Oh, God! they have compassed the outward path,
Those foemen dark, with their eyes of wrath,
And high o'er the brow of the vine-clad hill,
The cry of *the Moslem* rose clear and shrill.

There are foes behind, there are foes before—
In the tangled wood, on the sounding shore:
"Nearer and clearer" the dread notes swell,
Their echoes ring out like a funeral knell,
And with gleaming blades, 'neath the moonlight gray,
The serried squadrons rush on their way.

A change has passed over the youth's pale brow:
In its high resolve, so dauntless now,
One look to his trembling love is given,
And the next raised up to the cloudless heaven,
As if he would summon a seraph thence
By that look's unspeakable eloquence.
"Leila!" he said, in a low, sweet tone
(And his lip breathed gently upon her own)—
"Leila! earth's latest hope has flown:
But spirits like ours, thus severed here,
Will embrace once more in a brighter sphere.
They come! they come! *one* parting kiss—
Death for *thy* sake, beloved, is bliss."

A moment more, and a Moslem blade
Above the unshrinking speaker played;
But before the weapon of death could fall,
Or the startled Turk upon Allah call,
Oscar, with iron power, had grasped
The warrior's arm—as his hand unclasped,
He seized on the sabre that swung below
And dealt on his foeman so fierce a blow,
That the murderer, giving nor sign nor sound,
Sunk heavily down on the moistened ground.

O! 't was a sight that the gallant soul
Would have stirred, beyond reason's cold control:
That youth with the red blade flaming high,
And his broad breast heaving mightily
With emotions that swelled like a wild sea there,
The outpourings strong of the last despair;
And the maiden, though timid, and wan and weak,
With the rose-tint fled from her pallid cheek,
Was sustained by the fervor of deathless love—
And, lifting her heart to *its* source above,
A bright ray of hope on its darkness shone,
From the glory that circles God's radiant throne.

A hundred curses of merciless ire
Arose from Moslem breasts of fire—
A hundred reckless and powerful arms
Uplifted their terrible scimetars,
Reeking and red with the crimson gore
Of innocent hearts they had pierced before,
To revenge the fall of their treacherous chief—
'T was a conflict fierce, but passing brief.

Brave Oscar fronted the turbaned throng,
And sternly his shout of defiance rung;
The well-tried sabre, keen and bright,
Waved round his head in a line of light,
And "the foremost foeman" learned, that night,
How fearful the strength of a freeman's hand
That strikes for love and his native land.

Alone, amid the fierce crowd that pressed
Round that unflinching warrior's crest,
Still raised, and proudly raised on high,
Scorning to yield, though doomed to die,
Oscar, in desperate mood, fought on,
Till his limbs waxed faint and his strength was gone—
Then slowly sunk on the faithful breast
Of *one* to life's last hour loved best:
His eyes sought her's in the pangs of death,
And he blessed her name with his latest breath.

* * * * * *

Slowly and sadly the star-beams fade—
And, brooding in sadness, that softened shade,
That stealeth o'er heaven and earth awhile
Ere morn breaks forth with her glorious smile,
Settled dark and still on Scio's isle.

A trusty guard, from the Turkish host,
Were wending their way by the desolate coast,
Where the mangled forms of the murdered dead,
At each step on their dreary path were spread,
And the vulture was hovering overhead.

On a litter of boughs, from the "Greenwood" torn,
A fainting captive is lightly borne
To the silent shores of a secret bay,
Where the Moslem galleys at anchor lay.
Whence cometh this being, so pale and fair?
Hath a child from the wandering bands of air,
Too venturesome far, been lingering here,
Till the fiend-like yell and the carnage sight
Hath o'ercome her innocent nature quite?
Ah! no; 't is a maiden of mortal birth,
But destined soon to depart from earth;
For around her the somber and viewless wing
Of the angel of death is hovering—
And a voice that mortals may never hear,
Save when the last dread hour draws near,
When life's dream is o'er and life's toil is done,
Thrills on the ear of the dying one.

* * * * * *

A bark is bounding the blue waves o'er:
As the mists ascend from the fading shore,
There has risen the breath of a gentle gale,
Filling the folds of each unfurled sail,
And murmuring soft, with a mournful sound,
O'er the heaving billows that roll around.

A plunge is heard! from that galliot's side
A white robe floats on the azure tide;
Two clasped hands lifted, as if in prayer,
Rose sadly up through the misty air;
A low, faint cry, like the lute's last tone,
Passed by with the struggling water's moan:
Then, slowly the *form* of the maid went down,
While her *spirit* rose with an angel's crown.

2. THE THORNLESS ROSE.

BY A. J. REQUIER.

The tempest of a thousand dreams
Hath broke, but left behind
A rose which in my household gleams
Thornlessly beautiful, and seems,
Day after day, to wind
Its tender stalk about the breast,
Closer, which it has blest!

The idol of the buried past,
From out that past hath risen,
New-plumed; as breaks a light the vast
Of the benighted heaven!
My God! that I have lived, and she,
At last, thy gift should be.

Green hopes are blowing in my heart—
Its spring, so long delayed,
Unvails a bride; and they depart,
The ruin, rock and shade;
And where the hail-stones crushing fell,
Blushes a holy spell!

A spell of eyes that, in their love,
As daisies thro' the dew
Lift an entrusting look above,
Seem thus to look at you:
A spell of soft-inclosing arms,
Shielding from many harms.

O! tempest of a thousand dreams,
I bless thee; for behind
Thy gloom is left that rose which gleams
Thornlessly beautiful, and seems
Inseparably twined
With all that stirs within this breast,
Now and forever blest!

Marion, S. C., 1850.

3. THE MARSEILLES HYMN.

The writer of the annexed lines, prefaces them with the remarks which follow:

"I have often heard Americans wish for an English versification of the Marseilles Hymn. I hardly think it possible that one can be given, which will preserve the point, spirit and energy, which mark the original. Indeed, it is impossible, I conceive, to give a *close* translation—there must be some liberty given in the choice of language, provided the *sense* and *meaning* are not departed from. You will perceive that I have availed myself (perhaps too liberally) of this license. I have no confidence in my success. Z."

Near Natchez, Miss.

AN ATTEMPT AT AN ENGLISH VERSION OF THE MARSEILLES HYMN.

Come, children of your country, come!
The day of glory brightly beams;
Oppression sounds her signal drum:
For us, her bloody standard gleams.
Hark! from the line of that array,
The cruel soldier's fierce alarms;
They come, your friends, your sons to slay,
While seeking refuge in your arms.

CHORUS.

Then, citizens, to arms! your front of battle show—
March on! and with their tainted blood, your fields o'erflow!

Behold, now, all these slavish bands
Of traitors, and a treacherous king.
For whom these shackles? On whose hands
Are irons, long prepared, to ring?
Frenchmen, for us! Ah! what abuse!
What passions can our souls restrain,
When they thus dare to threaten us
With ancient servitude again?
Then, citizens, to arms! &c.

What! shall these foreign soldiers claim
To form for us a household code?
Or mercenaries crush the fame
Of our own warriors, brave and good?
Great God! shall we, in rack and chain,
Beneath the yoke, submissive lie,
And these vile despots thus remain
The masters of our destiny?
Then, citizens, to arms! &c.

Tremble! ye tyrants! full of guile,
By every party name abhorred;
Tremble! for parracide so vile
Will surely meet with its reward.
Each soldier pants to join the fray—
If our young heroes bleed and die,
France can call forth a new array,
Prepared your legions to defy!
Then, citizens, to arms! &c.

Frenchmen! upon the generous brave
Deal or withhold your warlike blows:
Yet, those unhappy victims spare,
That you, reluctantly, oppose.
But not those despots—men of blood—
Accomplices in strife—forsworn—
Relentless tigers, lost to good,
Who their own mothers' breasts have torn!
Then, citizens, to arms! &c.

The sacred love of country, wields,
Directs, sustains avenging hands;
Freedom, her sons, forever shields,
And with them in the combat stands.
Sits on our standard—Victory!
She hastens to our battle cry,
And foemen see, ere yet they die,
Our glory shine triumphantly!
Then, citizens, to arms! your front of battle show—
March on! and with their tainted blood, your fields o'erflow!

4. SUMMER RAMBLINGS.

Who has been pent up many months within the walls of a great city, sharing the contentions and struggles of active men, jostling and being jostled in the endless throngs that crowd the highways and the byways, or plunging, at times, into the vortex of pleasure and fashion, can appreciate the relief which a change of scene brings, when the wearied spirit seeks repose from artificial restraints in the boundless fields of nature, or in the novel recreations of travel.

So we felt, on leaving our home in the great metropolis of the West, when the first fiery breathings of summer began their exhausting influences on the physical man, and admonished that the season of life and gaiety and active turmoil was again at end in New Orleans. Wonderful emporium of a valley as wide as Europe and fertile as the Nile, how sleeps thy enterprise now—how deathly still thy quays—how deserted thy Rialto and thy Exchange, where men most did congregate—how blank and desolate every place of public resort and pastime in thy midst!

Well, they are wise, who thus retreat for a time that the heart may bound again, that the spirit be unfettered, that higher and holier inspirations come from the great workings of God—in the mountains, in the forests, by the seashores and the ocean—than ever attend the workings of the crowded city, which man has elaborated in his pride and power.

"I hate to breathe
The breaths and think the thoughts of other men
In close and crowded cities, where the sky
Frowns like an angry father, mournfully;
And O! I love the woods, those natural fanes
Whose very air is holy."

* * * * * *

Of these lake retreats, some belong to the earliest days of the city, while yet the creole, under French or Spanish rule, pursued his quiet way, unjostled or unmolested by the first advances of anglo-American adventure. Many of them are of recent origin; and every year adds to their number and popularity. Here the cool and refreshing breezes of the Gulf fan back the faded colors of the cheek, and the invigorating and luxurious bath nerves again the wasted system.

Yon wide expanse of waters, how tranquilly they sleep, save when ruffled by the evening breezes, by the flapping sails and pendants of the beautiful pleasure boats that dart and swim and throw the spray from point to point, or by the noisy paddle-wheels and hoarse belchings of the loaded steamer. See the gay colors floating and the anxious boatmen preparing for the race, as one by one the fairy craft bound from their moorings and strain every beam and sail in the rival struggle! Now the crowd throngs the shore, and loud huzzaings make the welkin ring again.

They have taken the lines and are off for yonder island, on a piscatory excursion. Here the exciting sport begins, as each favorite variety of the finny tribe is dragged upward from its briny home, to meet death on the sandy shores and minister to the appetites of remorseless and relentless captors.

And now the evening shades have fallen, and the sounds of music and the revels of youth and beauty are heard in the halls of fashion. We shun the pastime and the show, and steal away to the shore again. The mists of night have settled over the boundless waters; and star after star, peeping from the sky, sees itself mirrored in the sleeping basin, and guides the mariner on his way. But now a meteor darted over the heaven. Far away, on high tower, flickers and burns that beacon-light and lantern of the seas. Everything is still, and the holiness of nature alone reigns in the heart now.

* * * * * *

Among the numerous watering places around New Orleans and between the city and Mobile, in sight of which our steamer passes, are:

1. Pass Christian.—This is the most accessible point from New Orleans, being only a few hours distant, and is, perhaps, in the highest state of improvement and fashion. It is a delightful position and of a most inviting temperature, as the results of the thermometer last year will show:

July 1st,	6 A. M., 76°	12 M., 81°	6 P. M., 77°
Aug. "	6 A. M., 76°	12 M., 85°	6 P. M., 80°
Sept. "	6 A. M., 71°	12 M., 81°	6 P. M., 75°

We extract from the New Orleans Delta of an early date:

> 2. Mississippi City.—Next we approach that great invisible town, destined to eclipse our own Crescent City, the only apparent remains of which are the almost endless pier and tottering wharf. But we are told, for we have never trusted our precious bodies on that pier, which the enterprise and genius of the Mississippi speculators erected to receive the vast produce, which was so confidently expected to be landed here for reshipment to Europe—we have never essayed the long journey along that pier, but we understand that, when you have once reached the land, there are many pleasant little houses nestled in the live oaks, where you may pass a few weeks very delightfully.
>
> 3. Biloxi.—Biloxi is the largest of any of the sea-side resorts. Its regular population must be five or six hundred, and its visiting population considerably more than double that number. Biloxi has many advantages. The town is right on the sea; there is no long, white beach to traverse before you can reach the sea; and the soil is good, producing vegetables and a fine growth of trees. Here you can always get a fine supply of fish and oysters, and an abundance of fruit and all other vegetables. There are half a dozen excellent houses in Biloxi.
>
> 4. Bay of St. Louis.—This is a beautiful place, where the land is high and well timbered, the country around well cultivated, with fine roads and an abundance of all the conveniences and pleasures, both of the sea-side and back-country. It is generally resorted to by families, and such families, too! To our ancient or creole population, this has ever been an attractive and popular resort.
>
> 5. Pascagoula.—The place is appropriately called by such a soft and beautiful name. Pascagoula is, perhaps, the most desirable of all the places on the Gulf, with reference to enjoyments. The bathing is better than at any other place, and the fish, oysters and crabs, are more abundant. There is no lack of timber, the live oak and other trees being thickly strewn along the coast, and the situation of the place is very fine. The company at Pascagoula is a pleasant combination, in about equal numbers, of the citizens of Mobile and New Orleans.

* * * * * *

But here, at last, we have reached Mobile. Our sister city, like ourselves, reposes from the spasm of an active winter. Her half million cotton bales, the product of Alabama and contiguous counties of Mississippi, are freighted upon the deep or stored in the warehouses of Europe and the North. Her citizens, relieved for a season, seek recreation and health in every inviting retreat. We are rejoiced to find a spirit of enterprise abroad in Mobile, which must soon work a revolution in her affairs, and arrest the progress of any decline her citizens may have feared. Indeed, a high advancement must be reserved for her in the future. This will come with the progress and completion of the stupendous railroad enterprise she has projected to the Ohio, and which she is pressing forward with an earnestness and enthusiasm no difficulties could surmount. It will come, too, with the establishment of manufactures, for which her people are already ripe. A hearty God-speed to our sister in her onward way.

We take the steamer here and steer toward the Bay of Mobile. We have reached the anchorage, where the larger class of vessels, from the absence of sufficient draught of water higher up, are loaded and unloaded by the aid of lighters. Here we meet the British steamer Tai from Havanna, awaiting her passengers and mail. There are several watering places on the Bay of Mobile, which are becoming, or have already become, the seats of fashion and of pleasure. The locations are beautiful, and nothing is wanted to attract the most fastidious. Yonder we observe Hollywood House and Howard's; and still further off, toward the great ocean, and favored by its breezes and refreshed by its tides, is Point Clear. This is a new establishment, belonging to a company of gentlemen, and has already grown quite popular. The waters for bathing are more salt than at any other of the watering places, more especially the present season, as the crevasses of the Mississippi have inundated the lake. The nights are cool. We spent a week delightfully at the Point, and formed many pleasant acquaintances, whose memory and kindness shall always linger with us. The Alabama Planter says:

> Point Clear, however, is not all that is delightful on the eastern shore. There are Howard's and Freeman's, as delightful summer residences as a prince might desire. Buried, as it were, within the woods, they are sacred to contemplation and sentiment. In front, the beautiful bay spreads its vast bosom, and over and through it come such breezes and delicious fish as can nowhere else be found except in our own region. In the rear, also, is hunting as good as the best sportsmen can desire.
>
> For health, moreover, nothing can be more favorable than the whole of this eastern coast. It is superior, by all means, to our interior springs, the virtues of which, we imagine, are more imaginary than real. What is due to change of habit and diet, is usually attributed to the mineral waters at these places. As much good health, and a great deal more comfort, may be secured on the eastern shore. At least, that 's our opinion.

* * * * * *

Having returned to New Orleans from the lakes, we started on the splendid steamer, Alexander Scott, intending to visit for the first time many parts of Mississippi, and afterward Memphis, Huntsville, Nashville, the Mammoth Cave, &c., a tour from which much true delight was anticipated. A severe attack of indisposition prevented in part the accomplishment of the design, and prevents us now from embodying, as we much wish to do, from the abundant notes before us, the particulars of the trip so far as we were permitted to make it. This shall not, however, be neglected, if we can help it, in our next.

At Vicksburg, we collected notes for a paper upon that city, and the full statistics of the Jackson railroad, now extended to Brandon, and in progress toward the Alabama State line. We acknowledge our great indebtedness to Col. Roach, of this Company, for his many attentions and for the mass of data furnished us, which, with regret, but from necessity, is postponed for our next. To A. H. Arthur, Esq., formerly of the "Vicksburg Whig," a gentleman of wide and liberal enterprise, we also express our deep obligation. He had but just returned with Mr. Coleman, from Selma, Alabama, where, as commissioners, they had ordered the opening of books, &c., for stock in the railroad, on the first Monday in October next. At our request, Mr. Arthur furnished the following notes:

Railroads in Mississippi.—The Vicksburg and Jackson railroad extends from Vicksburg to Jackson, forty-six miles, and is complete.

The Southern Railroad Company, extends from Jackson, the seat of government of Mississippi, to Montgomery, the seat of government of Alabama.

The State of Mississippi has invested her two per cent. fund, about $300,000, to purchase negroes, iron, cars, and has completed the road from Jackson to Brandon, in the direction of Montgomery—thirteen miles now complete and running in connection with the Vicksburg and Jackson railroad. The State has given the railroad from Jackson to Brandon, with all its cars, depots and slaves, &c., to the Southern Railroad Company, whenever it is organized and completes twenty miles beyond Brandon, toward the Alabama State line. In the meantime, whilst the Southern railroad is being organized, the sixty slaves belonging to the two per cent. are working on the twenty miles beyond Brandon in grading and preparing for the iron, so that all the Southern railroad will have to do after they organize, is to get the iron and lay it down on these twenty miles, to secure the gift of the State—to wit: all the road completed from Jackson eastward, including cars, slaves, horses, wagons, &c. With this start, it will take but little effort to carry it to the Alabama line, near Livingston, Alabama. The only other condition is, that the Company will complete the road from Brandon to the Alabama line in six years.

From Vicksburg we visited Clinton, Raymond, Mississippi Springs, Cooper's Well, and Jackson, the seat of government, receiving many kindnesses and courtesies which shall ever endear to our heart the people of this gallant and flourishing State. From governor Quitman, in addition to other evidences of favor, we received many valuable public documents relating to Mississippi, which will materially aid us hereafter in commenting upon its affairs. We had begun a paper intended to be rather elaborate upon the State, but gladly relinquish the duty to another far abler. We refer to the Hon. J. M. Chilton, of Vicksburg, who kindly, at our request, has undertaken it, and for which task there is no man in Mississippi better qualified.

We spent two or three weeks most delightfully at the Mississippi Springs and Cooper's Well, both growing rapidly into favor and fashion. Here, during the summer months, a large portion of Mississippi congregates, and one may obtain no meagre notion of the social life and manners of the people. There were a few persons also from Louisiana and Alabama; but, we believe, the number will greatly increase as the merits of these resorts are better understood. New Orleans alone will furnish thousands annually. It is with regret, we can make but a few hurried allusions to these watering places, and that we are dependent almost literally upon our note book.

Mississippi Springs.—How tranquil the heart is amid these shades. Far down from our window the eye sweeps through groves of tall oaks and pines, and, following the gentle undulations of hill and vale, embraces a prospect the most picturesque and attractive. From the bowels of these hills the gelid springs ooze forth their limpid currents, bringing back freshness to the cheeks and making the heart beat with a new and higher life. Here the old man on his crutches comes, "While there is life there is hope"—"not that life is sweet, but death is terrible." Old man, would you find the fountain of perennial youth, and exchange gout and paralysis for the bound and leap of fifty years ago? Thou art here, too, man of thought and business, wearing upon thy features, and in thy staid and heavy gait, the semblances of over-tasked energies, of wasted health and of growing infirmity. Youth, dreaming and hopeful, and with all the enthusiasm of its nature, swells the list, chasing after pleasure, like boy with hat in hand after butterfly. Widows and maidens, ringleted, bright-eyed, dimpled-cheeked and laughing-faced, for conquest and admiration, and the joys which may not now be postponed! The dance, the dance—"on with the dance," each night mingling in its mazes warm youth and hopeful maidens and gay widows—on with the dance, till jocund day peep o'er the hill tops, or the smaller hours of morn invite thoughtless revelers to repose.

> "Since life is the cup we all must quaff,
> Be love the pearl within it."

But to be serious, the Mississippi Springs are in Hinds county, ten miles from Jackson, six miles from Clinton, four miles from Raymond, and two and a half miles from "Cooper's Well." They are within a few hours reach of Vicksburg by the cars, which leave twice a-day. The establishment has been in existence many years, but lately on an enlarged and improved scale. It has been a favorite resort, attracting annually thousands of visitors, as many as five or six hundred having been entertained at one time. Large families are in the habit of spending their summers at these springs, for the promotion of health. The climate is cool and genial, and the nights never made hideous by the orgies of muskctoes.

Mr. John Fletcher, a gentleman well-known in Mississippi, and who has had much experience in this character of business, has now charge of the premises, and it is doing him small justice to say, that he spreads daily one of the most inviting boards it has been our fortune to meet with any where out of New Orleans. Every thing that the country can afford, crowns the table of this excellent caterer.

There are billiard tables; ten-pin alleys; a bar room stocked with the finest description of wines, brandies and cigars; stables with any number of horses and vehicles; a large and airy ball room, where the "light fantastic" is tripped nightly; an excellent band of music; good roads for driving; airy rooms for sleeping, &c.

The waters are sulphur, and possess great virtues in the cure of dyspepsia, diarrhea, dropsy, general debility, &c. We say sulphur, though chemical analysis shows, we are informed, and sufficiently well marked, iron, soda and magnesia also.

The terms are extremely moderate.

COOPER'S WELL.—This summer seat has been in existence but a short time. The water is highly mineral and medicinal, and many remarkable cures have been performed by it, which are vouched for on the highest authority. We had some of them from the parties themselves. The original proprietor, the Rev. Mr. Cooper, claims to have been directed, by a dream, to this spot and bid to dig down into it. Whether or not, it is certain that the well *has been* dug, and that hundreds and thousands seek its remedial agencies. The buildings, though commodious, are still rude, owing to the fact that the proprietor has gone on without other capital than the annual earnings of the place. Four or five hundred could, however, at a pinch, be accomodated. There are billiard rooms, pin alleys, bars, ball rooms, and such like amusements.*

Appropos of the BALL ROOM—we had intended a page or two on the bright eyes that sparkled there, and the loveliness that is not often surpassed. But as this moment having returned to New Orleans, we are dull—passingly so—and cannot, if we would, "paint a rose or gild a lily," or cull a flower from any source. On referring, however, to our *diary* of nearly ten months back, when the fit was fully on us, a page presents itself, which, as illustrating how it is possible to feel at times, we insert without apology. In these hot days (the middle of August), one must treasure up his "odds and ends," and make them go as far as possible. Thus, we are "pensioners" on the *past*, and not, as Young says, "on the bounty of the hour."

"What shall compare with these nightly exhibitions of beauty, that burst upon us here? Is it that the "Orient Ind," we are sighing by dull locomotive pace to reach, already showers down her gems in sparkling heaps, realizing, at once, every rapt vision of ancient poesy or song? O! the brows of polished whiteness, and the deep, dark, glossy locks, that stream in wilderness profusion—"eyes which speak love to eyes speaking again"—sparkling, dazzling, bewildering, bewitching, reflecting like watch-fires the soul! Lips are here that breathe concentrated perfumes of all flowers in earth or paradise—sylph-like forms which graceful glide in every mazy dance and dizzy whirl, ravishing the senses by poetic motion! The spell is o'er—the irresistible fascination gone for me now, and darkness comes! An image lingers in that darkness of the soul. It is there, palpable as a thing of life and beauty, all radiant in the gathering night. How eloquent those eyes, speaking the innocence and purity of a soul that has not learned guile in the crowded haunts of fashion—so soft, so pensive, so lit by the emanations of a deity: a flower from the rich fields of *nature*, which art has not yet deformed. That voice, innocently joyous and musical, thrills upon the heart, drinking its deep notes, and saddening when the echo of them only lingers. I watched her where beauty blazed—the star gilding its way. She mingled not in the dance and revelry; for a young heart had been consecrated to God, and angels were her watchers. O! fair girl, I may not match thee among the bright throngs of earth—no spirit like thine may glide again upon my path—but dreams will bring thee back, like glimpses of lost heaven to pilgrim man: for the *pleiad*, which is gone from the sky, is not lost forever, but drawn higher and nearer to its throne, to burn brighter and more resplendent there!"

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*Cooper's Well is situated in Hinds county, Mississippi, thirteen miles west of Jackson, the State capital, and four miles east of Raymond, the county seat. The Raymond railroad, now rebuilding, will probably be done by the first of June next; it intersects the Vicksburg railroad at Bolton's. Distance from Raymond to the well, four miles. At this time, hacks can be had at Bolton's, twelve miles to the well; or Clinton depot, eight miles. Persons leaving Vicksburg can be at the well in four hours.

Extensive arrangements are making for the coming summer. The water is principally chalybeate. The celebrity of this well is not surpassed; and it is recommended by the medical faculty, in cases of chronic diarrhea, gravel, dropsy and general debility—it acts powerfully upon the liver and kidneys, and has the same salutary effect throughout the year. Invalids can be accommodated, at all seasons, with comfortable rooms.

But few places can excel this as a watering place. The picturesque view—the elevated location—romantic hills and lofty pines—in fact, everything indicates health, independent of the medicinal water, which has proved so beneficial.

5. LATE PUBLICATIONS, EDITORIAL NOTES, &c.

LATE PUBLICATIONS.

From Harper & Brothers, through J. B. Steel, New Orleans:

1. Gibbon's Rome, edited by Milman. This is published uniform with the editions of Hume and Macaulay, from the same house. There will be six volumes, with a complete index of the whole work. The reputation of this history has long since spread throughout the civilized world, and nothing in regard to it can be required from us.

2. History of England from the Accession of James II. By Thomas Babbington Macaulay. From the last London edition. We have already noticed this work, which is published in two neat and handsome volumes.

3. Dr. Johnson: his Religious Life and his Death. This is a handsome volume, of four hundred pages; but not having had time to examine it, critically, we furnish its table of contents: Religious Life of Johnson, his Humanity, his Churchmanship, his Superstition, the Close of his Life, his Calmness in Death. The work will hardly displace Boswell.

4. Harper's New Monthly Magazine. No. 2. (Will they send us No. 1, by mail?) This is the cheapest work of the day, and contains a republication of the leading papers in all the foreign reviews, journals, newspapers, etc.

From Geo. P. Putnam; J. B. Steel, New Orleans:

5. The Hungarian Revolution. Outlines of the prominent circumstances attending the Hungarian struggle for freedom; together with brief historical sketches of the leading statesmen and general who took part in it. By John Pragay, colonel and adjutant general in the Hungarian army under Kossuth.

6. Manual of Commercial Correspondence—English and French. By a merchant.

From the Author:

7. Wah-to-yah and the Taos Trail; or, Prairie Travel and Scalp Dances, &c. By Lewis H. Garrard.

From the Author:

8. The Analogy of Ancient Craft Masonry to Natural and Revealed Religion. By Chas. Scott, A. M., Grand Master of the Grand Lodge of Mississippi. This is a large and splendidly finished volume. The author is a resident of Jackson, Miss., and he has treated his subject with great elegance of style, purity and ability. His familiarity with Scripture things is surprising in a layman. As a specimen of the author's style, we take his opening passage: "The enlightened craftsman beholds in Free Masonry a wonderful institution. Founded, as it is, on the truths contained in the Holy Scriptures, its principles constitute a moral science which surpasses every other in the world."

From the Author:

9. The Doctrine of the Unity of the Human Race, examined on the principles of science. By John Bachman, D. D., Prof. Nat. History in the college of Charleston, S. C.

10. The Unity of the Human Races, proved to be the doctrine of Scripture, reason and science; with a review of the present position and theory of Prof. Agassiz. By the Rev. Thos. Symth, D. D., Member of the American Association. New York, G. P. Putnam; New Orleans, J. B. Steel.

The above work presents a mass of valuable matter, in connection with a subject we have already frequently adverted to, and which we intend before long to examine, in full, in our pages. Until then we reserve our remarks.

From Little & Brown, Boston:

11. Propositions concerning Protection and Free Trade. We have not had time to examine it. The author, Willard Phillips, rejects the whole science of political economy as it has hitherto been taught, and regards free trade as a crying and fearful evil. He says, in his preface: "I shall be happy to believe there is little at stake, and that the doctrines of free trade do not tend directly to the distress, decay and political subordination and degradation of this country, and to the too great entanglement of its industry and interests with those of other nations."

From Lee & Blanchard, Philadelphia; J. B. Steel, New Orleans:

12. Notes from Nineveh, and Travels in Mesopotamia, Assyria and Syria. By Rev. J. P. Fletcher. 365 pages. This is a compact volume. The author says: "From the great interest excited respecting Nineveh, I have been induced to collect and to throw into narrative, the notes of two years' residence on its mighty plains, with accounts of excursions into the remotest parts of Assyria. In order to complete the record, I have added some chapters descriptive of the country on the route.

13. Gallery of Illustrious Americans: Containing portraits and biographies of twenty-four most eminent citizens of the Republic. Edited by C. Edwards Lester, assisted by an association of literary men. New York: Brady, Davignon & Co. Price $1 per number—imperial folio size—or, for the set $20. The present, No. 6, contains "Col. Fremont." If the publishers will send us, through their agents here, the first five numbers, and those hereafter issued, we promise elaborate notices of them in the Review.

14. Pamphlets, Public Documents, etc. We are indebted to Phillips, Sampson & Co., of Boston, for No. 7 of Carlyle's pamphlets. Subject: "*Hudson's Statue.*" Our friend, Edwin Heriot, of Charleston, forwards his Address before the Cadets of the *Military Academy* of South Carolina. It possesses the chastity and merit of everything which emanates from his pen, and rises often to eloquence without once falling into dullness. It would afford us great pleasure, did space admit, to extract many passages from the pages of our esteemed friend and early companion. We have, also, another of Shakspeare's works, from Phillips, Sampson & Co., of Boston: *King Henry IV.* "*Proceedings of the South Carolina Medical Association,*" a pamphlet from the press of Walker & James, Charleston. *Discourse on the Funeral of John C. Calhoun*, by the Rev. James W. Miles, Charleston. With so sublime a spectacle as must have been presented at the bier of Mr. Calhoun, we should expect eloquence and power—and these are Mr. Miles's attributes. It was an occasion to acknowledge, with Massillon, at the grave of Louis XIV, "God alone is great." We are indebted to the Hon. Wm. Elliott, of South Carolina, for a copy of his late *Agricultural Address*, which is a document so valuable, we will endeavor, hereafter, to give a large part of it to our readers. Hamilton Smith, of Kentucky, sends us a large pamphlet, upon *Cannelton*, with a great abundance of cotton, coal, iron and manufacturing statistics. We will analyze the pamphlet, when more at leisure. The *Hon. Pierre Soule*, our able senator at Washington, will receive thanks for the Financial and Commercial Reports of government, and for the Debates in the Convention of California. We are also indebted to this gentleman and to the Hon. Mr. Rusk, of Texas, for several of their speeches, in pamphlet. Mr. Rusk's Post office Report we reserve for future analysis.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

1. Contributions.—We have on hand several valuable contribution which must, unfortunately, lay over until our next. We invite the aid of southern writers, upon all subjects, in our work.

2. Remittances.—Subscribers will please remit us promptly, on the receipt of this number, their dues for the current year and those which are closed, where such indebtedness exists. Remit by mail—to save us great loss by agents, and in time. Remittances will be acknowledged on back of work.

3. Bound Volumes, etc.—We again solicit orders for our bound volumes, in library style: and will supply them complete, four years, to July, 1850—amount payable in fall or winter, by order on factors. Not many sets remain.

Our prospectus is again inclosed. We would not weary our friends—but make a last appeal for their friendly aid in extending our circulation and ensuring our success. Much gratitude is acknowledged to them for past favors.

The present number is much smaller, and less interesting, than usual, for which the editor pleads continued indisposition during the past month.

Responsible persons are wanted to canvass different sections of the South for the Review.

4. Errata.—In our article on Cuba Expedition, in August number, appears several typographical errors; but they are chiefly verbal, and do not affect the sense in any important points. We seldom see our proofs, but have employed one of the best readers in the country, who sometimes, however, mistakes the hieroglyphical sentences of copy. He will improve in deciphering the text.

5. Mason's Express.—Subscribers, in New Orleans, will always receive their numbers, at our expense, through the *City Express Post.* We have taken great interest in this enterprise from the beginning, and are truly glad it is doing so well. Merchants and citizens should afford a generous support. Boxes are placed in every part of the city—but the head quarters are at 23 Royal street, opposite the post office. The proprietor is J. Mason.

6. Our Recusancy!!—Finally, many of the papers in Carolina and Georgia are down upon us about one editorial, "*The Cause of the South,*" in the July number. Our *irony* has all gone for nothing with them, and the sad and mournful accents in which we treated the distractions in southern councils, has been mistaken for opposition or indifference! Strange that *we*, who have been and are still thought, by most who know us, *a very Hotspur* in these wars of the South, and who have bourne the heat and burden of the fight for nearly ten years, should now be thought derelict and contumaceous by those professing to be allies, and after coming in at the very eleventh hour! Our whole life has been a practical refutation of the absurd and ridiculous charge of the editor of the *South Carolinian*. Does that paper know (if not, there are thousands here who do) the fact—we were one of the *original* Nashville Convention men, when scarcely five others in the State seemed to be in favor of it. We periled much upon that issue then, but were beaten. Notwithstanding this, our banner has ever been hanging out—and upon the outermost wall, too—never to be torn down, until the citadel is safe from every internal and foreign foe. Yet, the *South Carolinian* counsels southern men *not* to support the Review, and levels a bull of excommunication against it! As old Wolsey said, on a memorable occasion:

"O! Cromwell! Cromwell!" etc.

DE BOW'S

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ART. I.—MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

REMARKS ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI.

In the July number of the Review, I find an Article entitled:—"Protection of the Low Lands of the Mississippi; by Major Barnard, Engineer Corps." The article consists principally of some extracts from M. Dubuat's "*Principes d' Hydrauliques,*" in relation to the straightening of rivers, and the changes that may be made in their courses as in their beds," accompanied by about two pages and a half of notes, by Major Barnard himself, professedly based upon the authority of the previous extracts, together with his own knowledge of the Mississippi River. The subject being a very important one, involving the prosperity of the agricultural interest of a large portion of Louisiana, which has already suffered, and which, judging from present appearances, will still continue to suffer immense loss. From the erroneous views so generally entertained with respect to it, I may be excused for offering a few remarks in regard to Major Barnard's Notes, and the conclusions at which he arrives.

On a careful examination of the Notes, and a comparison of them with the extracts, I find that they do not accord. The extracts from M. Dubuat's work lay down cut-offs as a remedy for overflows, and give the reasons why they are so, namely, that by shortening the course of a river, they increase the relative fall, diminish the resistance, aid the discharge, and thereby lower the surface of its water. But on looking over Major Barnard's Notes, I find, to my surprise, that "in accordance with these principles" he has come to the conclusion that "no relief to the lower river can be obtained by means of cut-offs." I am the more surprised at the conclusion, taken in connection with the extracts, because in introducing them he says: "His remarks in r to redressments (cut-offs) are, perhaps, as applicable to the Mississippi as to any river."

The first enquiry that would naturally suggest itself to the mind, on comparing the notes with the extracts, is, how Major Barnard, from extracts recommending cut-offs, could draw the conclusion that "no relief to the lower river can be obtained by means of cut-offs." There is not a paragraph, nor a sentence in the extracts from M. Dubuat, that carries with it an argument against cut-offs. On the contrary, they are in favor of them properly made and not carried to excess. M. Dubuat thinks they ought not to be used where, in shortening the course of a river the fall would be increased too much, and the velocity made to interfere materially with the navigation, or be rendered dangerous to the banks. In the case of the Mississippi there is no such danger to be apprehended from cut-offs. The fall in the Mississippi from the commencement of the lower valley to the Gulf is so slight and so gradual, that there is no possibility of any cut-off increasing the velocity so as to prevent or impede navigation. Neither can the velocity of the current be so increased by straightening the channel as to render it dangerous to the banks. The *crevasses* in the Mississippi are not caused by the increased velocity of its water, but by the checks placed upon it, by the interposition of bends, &c., which retarding the velocity and impeding the discharge of the water cause its surface to rise, and thereby increase the pressure against the levees; they never occur in a straight river of a normal breadth and under proper levee regulations. On the other hand, were the channel made straight by the use of cut-offs, the increase of velocity, though it could not be made so great as to impede navigation, would by the increased rapidity of discharge, and by the deepening of the bed, lower the surface of the water and thereby relieve the levees more or less from the pressure of the water, which, in the present condition of the river, breaks through them in high water, while the very straightening of the channel would lower the surface of the river, and consequently reduce the pressure against the levees, and thereby remove any danger of *crevasses*.

Major Barnard seems to rely, for his strange conclusions, on the opinion expressed by M. Dubuat, that cut-offs, when necessary, should be commenced in the lower part of a river, and continued thence upwards, but by commencing in the upper part, the increased velocity produced by them might flood the lower river, and also, upon his own opinion as to the character of the channel of the Mississippi. Let me examine these two opinions for a moment: It is admitted by M. Dubuat, and also by Major Barnard, that a cut-off relieves the river above a bend, and lowers the surface of the river; but both contend, that the increased velocity tends to flood the river below. Very little reflection will show that this opinion is not correct; as, indeed, has long since been clearly established by experience. A bend in a river, by diminishing the relative fall, and by opposing greater resistance to the discharge of the water, causes it to accumulate in the reach above, until it acquires such a head as to force its way through. A cut-off being made, the fall is diminished, the resistance diminished, and of course, the velocity proportionably increased. The consequences are, the bed of the river is deepened, and the reach above being relieved by a free discharge, the water is no longer forced to rise in order to discharge itself. The surface therefore, being lowered, no more water passes through the cut-off than was previously forced through the bend by the rise in the water above. As to the increase of velocity, that in a river with as slight a fall as the lower Mississippi, cannot become too great; indeed, can never become greater than is necessary to keep its channel clear. In fact, the benefit from the cut-off consists as much in the increased velocity as in the free and unimpeded discharge of the water, for both are inseparably connected together. But whatever increase there may be in the velocity, arising from a cut-off, it cannot increase the tendency to overflow in the next bend below, as that depends, not upon the velocity, but upon the perpendicular height of the water kept back by the bend. When the water in the reach above a bend rises to a certain height, it commences discharging through the bend the same quantity it would discharge through a straight channel, with a reduced surface; and whether it comes down a little more slowly or a little more rapidly, it will commence relieving itself at that point only, and not before. In this respect a bend may be compared to a dam. Water cannot pass over a dam until it reaches a certain height; neither can it pass through a bend. As soon as it reaches that height, it commences discharging itself over a dam; so it does through a bend. And whether it comes down more rapidly or more slowly from above, provided the quantity remains the same, cannot affect the height of surface in the river below the dam; neither can it, for the same reason, when it passes through the bend. The tendency of both is to impede the discharge of water. The fear from increased velocity is therefore an idle one; for it is not only actually serviceable in deepening the new channel, relieving the reach above, and also deepening the reach below, thus establishing uniformity in the bed above and below, or in the inclination of the surface of the water; but it cannot possibly do any injury.

When it is considered that the river, itself, must be the great agent in all improvements made in its channel, and that all its alterations are from above downwards in the direction of its current, can any one doubt as to the propriety of the mode which nature adopts to effect her objects? When she begins her operations from above and works downwards, does man show his wisdom by arguing that she ought to begin below and work up? Were an extended system of improvements projected for the Mississippi, embracing the bar at the mouth, as well as the whole channel of the lower river, it might be well to prepare the mouth first, that the whole united force of the river, after all the outlets on either side of the pass were closed, and the channel constructed to the normal breadth might be brought to bear upon the bar, so as to deepen it, if not remove it altogether. But, in the mere operation of straightening the course of the river by cut-offs, it would be more advisable to begin from above, as by that means, the power through whose aid we expect to effect any improvement in the bend below is rendered more efficient.

The second opinion, upon which Major Barnard seems to ground his opposition to cut-offs in the Mississippi, is the peculiar character of the channel. He states that while there are several bends above the junction of the Red River, which might be cut through with benefit to that part of the river, below that point the course of the river, being for the most part moderately winding, has only a few bends that can be cut through; and, therefore, that the cutting of those above, though it might relieve that part of the river, would inundate the lower part. How this necessarily follows I am at a loss to conceive. If the lower part of the river be only moderately winding, it certainly would not oppose such resistance to the discharge of the water coming from above, as would authorize Major Barnard, even were I disposed to admit his premises, to argue overflow as a necessary consequence. But though a part of the lower channel being only moderately winding, may have no bend that requires to be cut, or that could be cut so as to improve the course of the river, is that a reason why that part, where the free discharge of the water, is obstructed by bends, should not be relieved? A straight channel of a normal width, with uniform banks, and a uniform depth, discharging its waters without obstruction and with a regular velocity, would certainly be the most perfect, that a river flowing through a country inclining almost imperceptibly towards the sea, could have. But, though it may not be possible to bring the channel of the Mississippi to this degree of perfection, it does not follow that every attempt to approximate to it should be abandoned, such a conclusion is consistent neither with reason, experience, nor common sense. If the improvement of the Mississippi cannot be carried as far as might be wished, let it be carried as far as it is practicable.

With respect to levees; there is no principle with regard to wide or narrow leveeing laid down in hydrotechnics, because an artificial river is always formed of two different profiles of a normal breadth—one for a low and the other for a high stage of the river—whereby the velocity of the current is regulated in such a manner as to prevent abrasion of the banks as well as the deposit of the heavy material which the river brings down, When the quantity of water which the river discharges, at high water mark, is ascertained we are able to determine the normal breadth of the river at its highest stage, together with the height of the levees and their distance from one another. There cannot be, in my opinion, a more mistaken idea than that one rule of distance is applicable to rivers of every degree of magnitude. The leveeing of the Po, or the Loire cannot, therefore, be taken as a standard by which to determine the location of the levees along the Mississippi, and, in this particular, the latter may be considered a river *sui generis.*

Thus far, I have thought it necessary to notice the views of Major Barnard. Were they put forward by any person not expected to be acquainted with the principles which Hydrotechnics teach, and which professional experience enables the mind to understand and appreciate, they might be looked upon without surprise, and passed by in silence; but, coming from a gentleman, invested with all the dignity of professional pretension, they cannot but be looked upon, to say the least, as singular, and the more singular because they are professedly based upon the authority of extracts, which, in reality, were intended to refute the very conclusion at which they arrive. But, to render the article still more singular, Major Barnard, in his closing remarks, admits that he has no plan for the improvement of the Mississippi, and that he is utterly ignorant of any data upon which one could be based. The conclusions to which Major Barnard has come, taken altogether, reminds me of the decision to which the council of Castile, Spain once came with regard to a similar question. They decided after solemn deliberation: That, if it had pleased God to make the river straight, he would not have wanted human assistance to enable him to make it so. But as he has not done it, it is plain he did not think it proper that it should be done. To attempt it, therefore, would be to violate the decrees of his providence and to mend the imperfections which he designedly left in his work. Such a decision may be in accordance with Major Barnard's views, but I doubt very much if it will meet those of the people of Louisiana.

Mobile, August, 1850.

ART. II.—SPANISH PARTIES IN THE WEST.*

This party in Kentucky—which took its name not from the adoption of Spanish views and interests by any party in Kentucky, for such was never the fact, but from the employment of Spanish officers to seduce the people of Kentucky from the Union—took another form in 1795, which may be distinguished as its second shape or phase.

At this time, the navigation of the Mississippi was still an unsettled question between the governments of the United States and Spain. Even the boundary of the United States stipulated by the Treaty of Paris in 1783, was resisted by the latter. She claimed, and actually exercised, jurisdiction on the Mississippi up to Vicksburg—then called the Walnut Hills; maintained forts at the latter point and at Natchez. Our relations with Spain, fluctuated with all the changes of relation between her and other European powers, and particularly France.

In June, 1795, Thomas Pickney was sent to Madrid, to bring these negotiations, so long pending, to a close. In the mean time, possibly under instructions from Spain, issued before the arrival of Pinckney, Carondelet, governor of Louisiana, despatched Thomas Power from New Orleans to Louisville, in Kentucky, with a letter addressed to Benjamin Sebastian, then a judge of the Court of Appeals of that State. In this communication, which is spread on the legislative records of Kentucky, he declares "that the confidence reposed in you by my predecessor, Brigadier General Miro, and your *former* correspondence, have induced me to make a communication to you, highly interesting to the country in which you live, and to Louisiana." He then mentions "that the king of Spain was willing to open the navigation of the Mississippi to the western country, and desirous to establish certain regulations reciprocally beneficial to the commerce of both countries." To effect these objects, Judge Sebastian was, the governor says, "to procure agents to be chosen and fully empowered by the people of your country, to negotiate with Colonel Gayoso, (afterwards governor of Natchez,) on the subject, at New Madrid * * * * whom I shall send there in October next, properly authorized for the purpose, with directions to continue at the place or its vicinity, until the arrival of your agents."

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* Continued from July No.

Some time in November, or early in December of this year, (1795,) Judge Innes and William Murray, afterwards a distinguished lawyer of Natchez, were requested by Judge Sebastian to meet him at the house of Col. Nicholas (the father of the present Louisville Chancellor.) The gentlemen went to Col. Nicholas, as they were desired, and there met Judge Sebastian. Some deliberation ensued, which resulted in the unanimous opinion of the gentlemen assembled, that Judge Sebastian should meet Col. Gayoso, to ascertain the real views of the Spanish Government in these overtures. Sebastian accordingly descended the Ohio and met the Spanish Agent at the mouth of that river. In consequence of the severity of the weather, however, the gentlemen agreed to go to New Madrid. Here a commercial agreement was partly effected; but some difference of opinion occurring between the negotiators, they repaired to New-Orleans, to submit the matter to the Governor General at that city. This adjustment was deferred by some pressing business, when, after a few days, the Spanish Governor sent for Sebastian, and informed him that a courier had arrived from Havana, with the intelligence that a treaty had been signed between the United States and Spain, which put an end to the business between them. The Kentucky envoy, after vainly urging the Spanish Government to close the sub-negotiation, in the expectation that the treaty would not be ratified, returned to Kentucky by the Atlantic ports. Thus ended the attempt, in 1795, to form a commercial connection between Kentucky and New Orleans, on the part of the provincial authority of the Governor of Louisiana.

Third form or phase of the Spanish Party in Kentucky.—This private negotiation, though terminated so abruptly by Carondelet, contrary to the urgent representations of Sebastian, was again renewed by the former officer in 1797. This was while the territorial line on the south was marking, between the United States and Spain. It was again attempted through the agency of Messrs. Power and Sebastian, on the respective parts of the Governor of Louisiana and certain Kentucky gentlemen. Thomas Power again arrived at Louisville, Kentucky, in the spring of 1797, as the agent of the Governor of Louisiana, and ostensibly on a mission to General Wilkinson, who then had his head-quarters at Detroit.

Power, immediately on his arrival in Louisville, communicated a letter from Governor Carondelet to Sebastian, desiring him to lay it before Messrs. Innes, Nicholas and Murray. In this letter, the proposal was boldly made "to form a government wholly unconnected with that of the Atlantic States." To aid these perfidious purposes, in the face of a treaty just negotiated between the two governments, and to compensate those who should consign themselves to infamy by assisting a foreign power to dissolve the sacred league of the States—to convert its free republican institutions, into dependencies on the arbitrary and jealous government of Spain, orders for one or even two hundred thousand dollars on the royal treasury of New Orleans; or, "if more convenient, these sums were to be conveyed at the expense of his Catholic

Majesty into the country," (Kentucky) and held at the disposal of those who should degrade themselves into Spanish conspirators. Other details of arms, &c., were entered into on an occasion not worth repeating.

The compensation to Spain for the free use of money and arms, made in this communication, was to be found in extending the northern boundary of Florida, at least to the Yazoo, to which Spain had tenaciously adhered, and which she now desperately and for the last time, endeavored treacherously to retain. It will be remembered that Great Britain had, while Florida passed under her dominion by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, extended West Florida north to the Yazoo River, hence the pretension of Spain to the same boundary, when adjusting the territorial limits between herself and the United States.

After receiving this communication from Power, Sebastian visited Judge Innes at his seat near Frankfort, and laid it before him. The Judge, and I quote from his own communication to a legislative committee, immediately observed that "it was a dangerous project, and ought not to be countenanced, as the western people had now obtained the navigation of the Mississippi, by which all their wishes were gratified.

Sebastian concurred in sentiment, *after*, it must be observed, this explicit declaration of Innes, who seems to have given tone to the whole conversation. Still, as Power desired an answer in writing, Sebastian prevailed on Innes to see Col. Nicholas, saying, "whatever they did he would concur in." A few days afterwards, Nicholas was seen by Innes at Lexington, Kentucky, who agreed, in opinion, with the Judge. The Colonel, accordingly, wrote an answer to Power's communication, (dated September 4, 1797—Rep. Journal, 1806,) unequivocally declaring that they "would not be concerned in any attempt to sever the Western country from the United States; that whatever part they might, at any time, be induced to take in the politics of their country, that her welfare would be their only inducement; that they would never receive any pecuniary or other reward for any personal exertions made by them to promote that welfare." The reply containing these sentiments, was forwarded to Sebastian, and by him communicated to Power. Thus terminated this pertinacious and treacherous intrigue on the part of Spain, to dissever these States. It is due to this subject and its actors, to state how these secrets were disclosed. In the session of 1806, Judge Innes was summoned before a committee of the House of Representatives of Kentucky, which had been instituted to inquire into the conduct of Judge Sebastian. Before this committee, Judge Innes disclosed the whole tissue of the Spanish intrigues, which have been related. Upon this frank and honorable disclosure, preserved in the legislative records of Kentucky, and subsequently communicated by order of the legislature, to the Congress of the United States, this relation has been based. There the whole matter slept the sleep of death, from which, Judge Rowan has often told the writer, he could not awaken it. A committee was appointed, but never made a report; high influence, it was said, suffocated the whole matter. We will now advert to the character of the persons involved in this memorable passage of western history. These are all marshalled for judgment and execution by the author of this truculent essay. The first character in order is *John Brown*, who is mercilessly arraigned on the sole testimony of a libellous newspaper, which was published in high party times, some forty years ago. How wanton—how unjust—how contrary to the tribute of the highest public testimonials of his adopted State, and the confidence of Washington, have already been shown. It only remains to add, that the bitterest enemies of John Brown, and they were political ones only, never connected him in the slighest degree with the communications of Power and Sebastian. They were, apparently, as unknown to him, as they were to the whole commonwealth, before the voluntary disclosures of Judge Innes. These may be compared to a thunderbolt in a summer sky.

Judge Innes.—This gentleman has already occupied no little attention, in this sober review of his conduct: the injustice and misrepresentation of this essay, must be undeniable. They are rather the ravings which could alone be inspired by the passions of party, in the bitterest moods of its existence. They are echoes or quotations, from the polluted columns of the "Western World"—a paper bitterly edited by a Scotch slanderer of John Adams, the notorious John Wood. Who ought to blush at the charge that Innes "persisted in his treasonable conspiracies with every foreign emissary, who intrigued for the dissolution of the Union, regardless alike of the duties of a good citizen, and the high obligations of his official duty?" Certainly, no friend to Judge Innes can be disturbed by such frantic misrepresentations of his course. But first, let us listen to the explanations of his conduct, given by the Judge himself, in his examination before the legislative committee:—"The reasons," said Innes, "why himself and Col. Nicholas did not communicate the subject to the Executive of the United States, were these:—1st. It was known that neither of us approved of Mr. Adams' administration, and we believed he kept a watchful eye over our actions; that the communication must depend upon his opinion of our veracity; and it would have the appearance of courting his favor; 2d. that we both had reason and did believe, that the then administration were disposed, upon the slightest pretexts, to send an army to this State, which we considered would be a grievance upon the people, and therefore, declined making any communication on the subject, as we apprehended no danger from the Spanish Government."—Journal House of Reps., 1806-7). These reasons, I am willing to admit, will bear no examination; and yet, I have frequently thought what Col. Nicholas would have said on this matter, had he then been alive. How indignantly would he have scorned the base part of a public informer!—a States' evidence!—when all danger to the country had been averted. He would not have stooped to betray Judge Sebastian, to the loss of his character and office, by wanton delation; nor, would he have spared the apparent apathy, if not criminal disregard of the navigation of the Mississippi, which had been evinced by the administration of the old Congress.

Judge Innes must have felt the force of these considerations, though he did not avow them; and, but for his high and conscientious sense of duty, when summoned before the legislative committee, the public might never have been acquainted with these defeated intrigues of Spain. The memory of Innes and Nicholas is free from all suspicion of being tainted with foreign bribery, however party feeling, in times of high party existence may have led them to conceal from their own government, these tamperings of a foreign one. Apprehensions of political consequences to Kentucky, should not for a moment have been allowed to interfere with the duty of both, as citizens, and one as a judicial officer of the United States. The charge of foreign bribery, though brought home to Judge Sebastian, never was attached to his associates in the slightest degree. All participation in this odious business had been rejected, too tamely, I admit, by them; yet, it fastened an obloquy upon Judge Innes, which, in this instance, he did not fully deserve, and which distressed him through the remainder of his life, if it did not shorten his days. The whole tenor of the conduct of Messrs. Innes and Nicholas cannot justify the slightest suspicion of their fidelty to the Union of the American States, or indifference to their liberties. Their character for faithful, devoted friends to the freedom and happiness of their country, had ever stood high and unimpaired in the confidence of their fellow citizens. It is likewise due to the virtues of Judge Innes to declare, that in all the relations of private life, no man was dearer or more idolized, by the witnesses of his mild, upright and benevolent character. His public career in Kentucky, amidst its earliest difficulties, had always been one of high trust and confidence, in all the changes of government; he had early been appointed judge of the Virginia district court, and then attorney general, and finally, judge of the United States district court of Kentucky. In all these responsible capacities the conduct of Judge Innes was without reproach, and raised him most deservedly high in the public esteem. He repeatedly received the thanks of General Washington, for his services in the Board of War, which was organized for the Western country in 1792.

Col. Nicholas.—This gentleman has left behind him the reputation of an exalted and patriotic, as well as a most distinguished lawyer. In the Convention of Virginia, assembled to decide upon the ratification of the present Constitution of the United States, he took a prominent and influential part, alongside of such illustrious worthies as Wythe, Madison, and Gov. Randolph. He bears the reputation of being the author of the first constitution of Kentucky. To a man of such reputation, and such associations, what could have been more repugnant than a dependence on Spain? or more shocking to all the dearest feelings of his heart, than to become a Spanish conspirator? These men might all have duped the Spanish agents into any disbursements from the King's chest at New Orleans, much more effectually than Sebastian; but their sense of honor most properly disdained it. How cruel and unjust then, now to stigmatize their memory with slanders long ago buried by the public indignation of Kentucky, in silence and contempt?

Judge Sebastian.—For this person I have no apology to make; for his conduct in 1795 and 1797, at once degraded his distinguished abilities—his commanding address—his more courteous and dignified manners—by stooping from high office to become a pensioned agent of a foreign government. He was convicted before a legislative committee of having received a pension of $2000 per annum from Spain; and that his conduct in doing so "was subversive of every duty he owed to the constituted authorities of our country, and highly derogatory to Kentucky." This report was unanimously agreed to by the House, and the Judge was suffered to resign, in sympathy for an ancient publi
The charge of public bribery must be confined to Judge Se

whom the testimony, under the excitement of most embittered party, *exclusively* applied. Not a public statesman in the West, with this exception, and bearing in full mind the calumnies against Gen. Wilkinson, can, with the slightest grounds of justice, be charged with this high public crime. As well attempt to assail the character of Col. Thomas Marshall, the father of the Chief Justice, because he received the visits of Doctor or Col. Connolly, who called upon him for the purpose of ascertaining the temper of Kentucky to accept British assistance. Yet, he disdained and repelled such offers, as truly as Judge Innes and Col. Nicholas had, the offers of Spain in 1795 and 1797. As well assail Major Crittenden, the father of the present noble Governor of Kentucky, because he saved Connolly from being mobbed in Lexington, Kentucky, and permitted him to return to Canada with whole bones. No schemes of disunion never had existence on the soil of Kentucky, but when abandoned by her own government, as she was under the Old Congress.

Judge Muter.—In regard to this honorable and amiable Judge, whom I well knew, I only wish I could find access to the memoir of Judge Todd, furnished for Wheaton or Peter's reports, by his gallant son, Col. Charles S. Todd, the late minister of the United States, to St. Petersburg, for the detail of his vindication. But deprived of these, I am but at little loss to repel this attack upon the fair fame of the Chief Justice of Kentucky. So far from having any connection with the Spanish conspiracy of Carondelet, Power and Sebastian, the wantonness of party slander never hinted such an accusation, beyond the polluted columns of the "Western World." And will it be believed that an old man, who had gallantly fought his way through the whole revolutionary war, Scotsman as he was, on the side of American liberty, is taunted with monarchical attachments? Yet the gallant and generous hearted old Judge, who left himself a beggar by resigning his chief justiceship, under the pressure of years, disappointed in the pension given to him on the resignation by the indignant repeal of the law under which it was granted, found an asylum in the family of Judge Thomas Todd. There he lived the remnant of his days a pensioner upon his more youthful and fortunate friend. I used to visit him in the log cabin which he inhabited in the Judge's yard, serenely whiling away his time with his books and his violin. And now, when deprived of all the fruits of a long public life, devoted to Virginia and Kentucky, in the field and on the bench, he died leaving Judge Todd his residuary legatee. Under this will, Judge Todd recovered a large and handsome sum of money, for this *monarchist's* military services to the commonwealth of Virginia. "Oh shame where is thy blush!"

General Wilkinson.—In June, 1787, James Wilkinson, afterwards the famous general of that name, descended from Kentucky to New Orleans with a small cargo of tobacco, determined, as he tells us in his own memoirs, (vol. 2, pp. 112, 116), to try his enterprise and address at the seat of the Spanish government of Louisiana. When the boat arrived through the long intervening wilderness, at New Orleans, the representations of a friend of Wilkinson's to Gov. Miro, prevented its confiscation. Mr. Patterson, the friend of Wilkinson, was, moreover, permitted to dispose of the cargo free of duty. (American State Papers, p. 704).

In addition to this favor extended from the politic fears of the Spaniards, Wilkinson obtained a contract to furnish a considerable supply of tocacco for the Mexican market annually. This tobacco was to be paid for at ten dollars per cwt., or as Clark says, $9,50 delivered in the King's stores at New Orleans; when it was selling in Kentucky for $2 per cwt.

This contract, which Wilkinson had at the time the most perfect right to make, as much so as any private citizen has at this day, with a foreign government at peace with the United States, became the source of many malignant insinuations against him, when, as afterwards, he became an officer in the army of the United States. Payments under this contract for tobacco delivered at New Orleans, which were remitted to, and received by Wilkinson in Kentucky, although immediately paid away to the farmers of that State, were all trumpeted abroad as Spanish bribes. I will repeat what sixteen years ago I said on this subject. "It is due to the memory of General Wilkinson, to his distinguished services and persecutions, to declare that this part (meaning the tobacco contract,) of the subject was approached by the author, with strong prepossessions against his purity. But on sifting the mass of testimony procured by one military tribunal, and four committees of Congress, added to that presented to a second court; and finding the General acquitted by both courts, and their sentences approved (reluctantly approved in the last instance,) by two Presidents of the United States, the author has been forced into the conclusion that this military officer has been wronged in the suspicions and denunciations so long and bitterly indulged against his honesty. "General Wilkinson did certainly show no reserve in disclosing to his own government these connexions with the Spanish officers at New Orleans; nor any backwardness in developing the circumstances, or in soliciting inquiry from General Washington, or the elder Adams. "But one conclusive consideration in the mind of the writer, which confirms the honor and fidelity of Wilkinson, is, that, in his long and various public services, no one solitary instance can be justly alleged, in which he disregarded or violated the strictest, and most zealous discharge of his duty." How easy would it have been for Wilkinson, when stationed on the Sabine river and informed by Swartwout that Burr was descending to New Orleans, to have avoided patching up matters with the Spaniards on that frontier, or to have precipitated hostilities, never difficult, between enemies in the field? A negative course would have left New Orleans open to the plunder of Burr; active hostilities with the Spaniards would have been still more effectual. But what was his course? it was to agree with the Spaniards upon the Sabine as a temporary line between the United States and Spain, until farther negotiations of the two governments; and to hurry down to the defence of New Orleans, how effectually we all know. Yet this eminent officer seems to have been, with many brilliant qualities, an unfortunate man. An aid to Gates in the battle of Saratoga, second in command and then first, against the Indians on the Wabash, second in command at the battle of the Maumee, in 1794, commander in chief of the army of the United States, commissioner to receive Louisiana from France, Governor of Upper Louisiana, commander in chief against Montreal; still Wilkinson died in suspicion and disgrace—an exile in Mexico. While in Kentucky, was there an address to be written which should pour forth her ardent feelings—a debate in her district conventions to be opened on her vital interests,—Wilkinson was equally the author of the one, and the speaker in the other. So varied, rich and polished were the powers and acquirements of this singularly versatile person, that whether in the field of Saratoga, the cabinet of Governor Miro, or in the convention of the backwoodsman of Kentucky, this gifted man, drew all eyes upon him, and was looked up to as a leader and a chief. His memoirs furnish one of the most curious exhibitions of the vicissitudes of a public officer which the service of this republic affords. Wilkinson was an ardent speculator in lands and anything else which pleased his ardent imagination—he was no conspirator, either with Burr or with Spain.

I will follow this essay no farther than to say, that the land companies of the country, in the early history of the West, had no more connection with any foreign government than they now have all around us. Land, in our rapidly augmenting country, is as natural a subject of traffic as bread and meat; and it would be quite as well to connect the latter with intrigues of foreign governments as the former.

I can now only say, at the close of this naked vindication of Kentucky statesmen, some of whom were most esteemed friends, and others respected on the traditions and records of the State, that I wish I had time or ability to enlarge upon the real and genuine *early spirit* of the West. It is a noble theme—it is to delineate that spirit which scaled the Alleghanies and spread the dominion of the Republic to the banks of the Mississippi—which vanquished confederacies of the most warlike savages on this Continent, fed and armed by a European power, and in fine, has substituted for the wilderness and savage man, fields ripe with the blessed fruits of the farmer's labors—sacred churches, noble schools and halls of free legislation; and above all, a people of high-spirited intelligent freemen. Is this not a debt which the civilization of the world owes to the early spirit of the West? This is the high mission of civilization which is now only fulfilling on the Pacific, amid the Placers of California, and the mountain gorges of Oregon—the appointed work which was begun in the stations of Kentucky and Tennessee. Are these not fruits worthier of a critics eye—worthier of a true historian's comment, who is imbued with the generous spirit of our own people, than the offences or mistakes of a few public men? What morbid taste is this, which prefers to feed on the garbage of stale and rotten slanders of ancient public servants, to feasting on the glorious works of the high and gallant deeds, which have spread a peace-and-labor loving people from the Alleghanies to the Pacific Ocean! What France, and Spain, and Great Britain, in the highest pride and power, have failed to do—the pioneers of the West, embracing the *Puritans* of the North-East, as much as the *Long-Knife* of Virginia, have greatly, wonderfully done, and are still doing, to the admiration of all true friends of humanity—civilizing and Christianizing America.

ART. III.—EARLY AND GROWING COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

In the following paper we shall hurriedly discuss the commerce of the United States, from the earliest authentic dates to the year 1833, and include a large number of interesting particulars, which have been overlooked by us, or been but slightly touched upon in previous articles. The period of 1833 is assumed as a very convenient one, for several reasons, among the chief of which is, that the elaborate statistics of Mr. Pitkins terminate there. When time admits, we shall, by examination of the year books of Congress, be able to bring down the subject with the same minuteness, to the present day, and furnish many important and valuable contrasts, &c.; but the reader, by reference to our last eight volumes, will find scattered under various heads, almost all the individual facts and particulars. We would point in confirmation to the article in vol. 1, on "The Origin and Progress of Commerce," and in vol. 2, on "The Progress of American Commerce," &c.

The discovery of America, and its subsequent colonization, gave an impetus to the commercial operations of Europe, which has been enlarging ever since. It is impossible to describe, in language sufficiently strong, the important bearings of this event upon the history and prospects of mankind.

The colonies of Great Britain in particular, as we may gather from the terms of the charters accorded them, were intended at the earliest period, as the poles of an extensive commerce which was to be added to the empire; and considering the character of the earliest emigrants, hardy, bold, enterprising, conversant with the general principles and advantages of trade by their education in so considerable a trading nation as Britain, and the character of the country they were peopling—extensive seaports, great and innumerable rivers, admirable bays and harbors, fertile soil, and favorable climate—this intention could by no means have appeared unreasonable.* Time has shown that the most enthusiastic expectations fell infinitely short of the reality.

With the struggles of the early colonists against man and nature, we all are familiar. A season of long probation had of necessity to be endured, and it served to form that hardy and resolute character which even yet adheres to their descendants. The New England pilgrims were the first, from their barren shores and rock-bound coasts, to go down to the sea, and assay its great perils. To this hardy, daring, and inimitable people, the boons of nature were to be found in the apparent denial of them all. Upon the pathless deep they are described in eastern gorgeousness, in the oratory of Burke, struggling at either pole, amid tumbling mountains of ice, in the frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis' Straits, beneath the arctic circle, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the south.

Few particulars can be offered of the commerce of the seventeenth century. We know that in 1647 a trade had been opened from the northern ports to Barbadoes and others of the West Indies; that a collector of customs was appointed at Charleston in 1685, and that the hardy enterprises of the Nantucket whalemen received their first impulse in 1690.

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* Seybert, 54.

At the opening of the eighteenth century, the gross value of the exports and imports of all the American colonies, in their trade with all the world, did not exceed £740,000 sterling, or about three and one half millions of dollars, a sum which does not much exceed the average annual trade of the single states of Maine and Vermont, which are never regarded among our foreign trading states at all. It is less than our export alone of fish, oil, and candles.

A wider field began soon to appear. In 1731 parliament was petitioned to open the African trade to the Americans. The Pennsylvanians were already conducting profitable traffic in Surinam, Hispaniola, the West Indies, Canaries, and Newfoundland. "New England," said a chronicle of the times, "employs six hundred ships, sloops, &c., about one half of which sail to England."

The eyes of the mother country came soon to be opened to the dangers which threatened her from these aspiring, daring, and refractory children across the ocean. Like Phæton, they were stealing the horses of the sun, and unless arrested in their mad course, it was impossible to foresee the consequences. They had learned, too, to guide the reins of these horses. One may fancy the consternation in parliament. "The only use of colonies," said Lord Sheffield, "is the monopoly of their consumption, and the carriage of their produce." The same noble lord remarked, even after our independence, "It would hardly be the interest of the Americans to go to Canton, because they have no articles to send thither, nor any money."* "Nothing, nothing," declared their statesmen in parliament, "can be more prejudicial, and in prospect more dangerous to any mother kingdom, than the increase of shipping in her colonies."

One of the earliest acts of British jealousy and restriction was in 1730, and was aimed against the American trade with the Dutch and French colonies. This was followed up, in 1760, by the navigation act, which declared that certain specified articles of the produce of the colonies, and since known in commerce by the name of the "enumerated articles," should not be exported directly from the colonies to any foreign country, but that they should be first sent to Britain and there unladen, before forwarded to their final destination. What could be more preposterous and suicidal than such a proposition?

The act of 1764 provided further, that no commodity of the growth, production, or manufacture of Europe, shall be imported into the British plantations, but such as are laden and put on board in England, Wales, or Berwick-upon-Tweed, and in English-built shipping, whereof the master and two thirds of the crew are English.

In 1770 Mr. Burke announced with high gratulation in the House of Commons, that "our trade with America is scarcely less now than we carried on at the beginning of the century with all the world.

At the same period, Malachi Postlethwait, in an address to the parliament, remarked, "for if once a commercial union should take place between the British continental colonies and the islands, to a certain degree they might think it worth their while probably to hazard the loss of the British markets, for the sake of the gain arising from the general freedom of trade to all other parts of the world. What then may become of our British navigation, to and from America? When that is lost, will not all our revenues, arising from our present American imports, be annihilated? and what will be the state of the public credit of this nation, when such a catastrophe should ever happen?"

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* Seybert, and see his note.

The statistics of American commerce, from the opening of the century until the period of the Revolution, show a continued augmentation. During the troubles of that period, and of those which immediately preceded, some decline was of course inevitable. In 1771 the whole exports and imports of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Maryland, Carolina, and Georgia, fell but little short of $30,000,000, having increased tenfold since the beginning of the century.

The war being closed, and an immense national debt of $42,000,000 accumulated, exclusive of state indebtedness, Congress found it absolutely necessary to provide a system of revenue adequate to the exigencies of the country. Experience had shown that impost duties could alone be relied upon, and were in other respects the least objectionable mode of taxation. Under the articles of federation, such duties could only be levied by the states, who thus reserved to themselves the exclusive control over their commerce. This state of things was attended with the most awkward and embarrassing results, and seemed likely at once to destroy all the benefits of the independence which had just been realized. Congress was left without a revenue, and was paralyzed. Foreigners began to exhibit their jealousies of the growing republic, and hostility to its commerce. Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, rejected all overtures to enter into treaties of commerce with us.[*] Some of the states opened their trade free with all nations, thus holding out superior encouragements to their neighbors. New York, in this manner, laid the foundation of the empire she now maintains. From the free ports goods might be smuggled into other states. Tonnage duties in different states varied from one to three shillings sterling the ton.

As early as 1781 Congress prayed for the power to levy a duty of five per cent. ad-valorem, upon imports, to be continued until the payment of the debt. A further power of *regulating the commerce of the states*, was moved for in the same body, and negatived there. The states refused even to grant the duty.[†] In 1783 the proposition was again urgently renewed, limited to the term of twenty-five years, but was not carried into effect.[‡]

The darkest period was now at hand. The country, it is maintained, was drained of specie by the extraordinary preponderance of the imports over the exports for several years, being often as three to one in regard to Great Britain. The interest of the debt was unpaid, public credit gone, the debt itself considered of little value, and sold to many of its original holders for about one tenth of its nominal value. Private credit was also much impaired. During the war, the collection of debts was in a great measure suspended, and on the return of peace, goods were imported by many individuals far beyond their means of payment, and the courts were filled with suits against delinquent debtors. The importing states took advantage of their situation, and levied duties on imports for their own benefit, at the expense of the other states.

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[*] Marshall's Washington, p. 5, 182. [†] What States refused, Seybert, p. 57.
[‡] Pitkin's, p. 30.

"Thus burthened with public and private debts, and pressed with taxes, and with a scarcity of money, some of the states, in order to remedy the evil, had recourse to paper money and tender laws; and in one state there was an open insurrection, which threatened not merely the peace and existence of that state, but the peace and existence of the Union itself."*

Happily for the country, and for the interests of mankind, the wisdom of our fathers was adequate to the great emergency. A common danger suggested a convention of the states, which, after able, protracted, and patriotic deliberations, presented to the world the constitution, under which, for nearly three fourths of a century, we have prospered beyond all example. The hand of God should be marked in the result. Under this constitution, one of the first grants of power to Congress was that of regulating commerce with foreign nations, among the several states, and with the Indians.

Soon after the establishment of the present government, Mr. Jefferson, then secretary of state, in an answer to a call of the House of Representatives, made a report, in which he proposed a liberal system of commercial policy. "Instead of embarrassing commerce under piles of laws, duties, and prohibitions," he says, "it should be relieved from all its shackles in all parts of the world. Would even a single nation begin with the United States this system of free intercourse, it would be advisable to begin it with that nation."†

We have already marked the origin and progress of the various commodities which have in the past, and still make up the sum of our export trade, whether the product of agriculture or manufactures.

We propose now a review of the results of the American foreign commerce with all nations, since the formation of the government.

Scarcely had we entered into the family of nations, than there opened in Europe the fearful drama of the French Revolution, which in its results seemed once again to have involved the world in chaos. The United States, preserving her neutrality, became the common carrier for all nations, conducted the commerce of their colonies, and supplied them from her own resources with the results of her industry. Never, in the history of the world, was there a more rapid and extraordinary prosperity. Every other art and pursuit seemed eager to merge itself into commerce. Capital poured into this channel. The principles of trade and all experience were set at defiance. No adventure could be too rash for success. However, gold crowned the efforts of the most ignorant operators. What wonder that we became a nation of merchants, or that in population the United States rose at once to the character of the first commercial nation in the world. ‡ "Fixed and permanent improvements were established throughout the United States," says Mr. Seybert; "the accumulated capital of our merchants enabled them to explore new sources of wealth; our cities were augmented and embellished; our agriculture was improved, our population was increased, and our debt diminished.

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* Pitkin's Statistics, p. 31. † We extract from Seybert. ‡ Seybert.

To exhibit in the most striking terms the state of things, we remark from the tables, that the total imports into the United States, from 1800 to 1808, eight years, exceeded eight hündred millions of dollars; whereas in the eight years ending with 1845, these imports did not reach nine hundred millions, though the population had augmented nearly three-fold. The export of domestic produce in the first period is fully one half that of the second. The total exports were as seven hundred millions then to nine hundred millions now; and what is the most remarkable of all, the United States, in the first eight years of the present century, conducted an export trade in foreign goods three and a half times greater than they do at this moment. In the single year 1805 the trade was as large as in the six years ending with 1847 taken together.

This prosperity in the infant Hercules of America awoke the keenest jealousy of European powers, and open hostilities. They began to impose annoying restrictions and interdictions, and other arbitrary acts, against which all protestation proved in vain. It seemed in despite of our most determined efforts, we must be involved in the conflicts of Europe. The spirit of the nation was aroused, and in despite of the opposition of the merchant classes an embargo was imposed in 1807, which was continued for two years. This had the effect of prostrating our commerce and was adopted as the sole remaining alternative of peace. The embargo said our Government, by teaching foreign nations the value of American commerce and productions, will inspire them with a disposition to practise justice. They depend upon this country for articles of first necessity, and for raw materials to supply their manufactories.*

To show the extent to which we were preyed upon by the European powers, it is only necessary to consider the captures made of our merchantmen between 1803 and 1812 when we were said to be at peace with all nations. The captures were for alleged violations of various illegal orders and decrees. The list was made out by the Secretary of State and is far from being complete, nor does it exhibit in any degree our losses, which occured from delays &c. as well as from actual capture.†

Captures by British,	917	vessels.
" French,	558	"
Neopolitans,	47	"
Danes,	70	"
	1592	"

These spoliations were the subjects of after negotiations, viz.: with England, France, 1803, Florida Treaty, 1819.

In 1809 non-intercourse with Great Britain and France was substituted for the embargo, which gave such offence to the latter that she immediately condemned millions of American property as lawful prize. The next year it was determined to remove this restriction if these powers would repeal their hostile decrees. Napoleon after playing a game of deception acceded in 1811. The course of Britain was unchanged, and the patience and patriotism of the American people enduring outrage no longer, cried to arms. In the fierce and bloody conflict which followed, the national honor was forever vindicated.*

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*Seybert.

†Seybert, 76

During this year, or for example, in the years 1813 and 1814 together, our imports were less in amount than in any two years since 1790, and the export was only one-third as great in 1814 as in 1790. The country engaged, however, extensively in domestic manufactures.

From that period to this, the world has been in profound peace and engaged in the extension of arts, industry, enterprise and civilization. The great and benignant influences of such a state of things have been universally felt and we may indeed cherish the hope that between great Christian communities the battle-axe has been ground down into the plough-share and that nothing will soon be allowed to disturb the sacred amity and brotherhood of nations. "Peace has her victories as high," indeed infinitely higher than those of "war."

Soon after the treaty of peace, the British navigation laws were relaxed in our favor, and the orders in council of 1791 were upon this liberal basis. These gave way to the treaty of 1794, which provided for reciprocal privileges of trade. In 1815, by treaty the tonnage duties between the United States and the European possessions of Britain were equalized.

For the seven years ending in 1790, the declared value of British imports from America, which is much less than the real value averaged about four and a half millions of dollars, and the exports about eleven millions. In the seven years ending 1801, the American exports had on an average increased nearly four-fold and American imports two and one-half fold. The American exports in 1801 were seven-fold that of 1781, and the imports only about five-fold that of 1786.†

In 1821, our imports from Britain and Ireland were twenty-five millions, in 1831, forty-four million dollars, and in the year ending June 30, 1847, sixty-seven million five hundred and ninety-seven thousand six hundred and eight dollars. Our exports have in the same period, increased from twenty millions to thirty-two millions, and in 1847, eighty-six million one hundred and sixty-six thousand, seven hundred and thirty-five dollars. It is true that in the last year there were peculiar causes to influence the extent of our trade with these countries, viz. the famine there, and the low tariff of 1846.

By a comparison of the table of our trade with Britain at the beginning of the century and at the present time, we will find that in the first period it amounted to one-third of the whole American trade, and in the last period, one-half. Nothing can show more conclusively than this the importance of preserving peace and amity between the two nations. As they increase in wealth and power, the value of their mutual intercourse must go on continually augmenting.

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* The British orders were actually revoked five days before the declaration of war.

† Pitkins.

Another striking view presents itself here. In 1700 the average value of the United States commerce to Great Britain, was one-twelfth of the aggregate value of the whole of the commerce of that empire; in 1786, one-ninth; in 1822, one-eighth; and in the year 1849, one-fourth.

With the British East Indies we opened intercourse about the year 1783, and by order of Lord Cornwallis, the Governor, our vessels were admitted on favorable terms in 1788. In 1806 thirteen American vessels arrived from Canton, and as early as 1789 (Seybert) it was stated in the House of Representatives, that forty-seven vessels were on voyages to countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope. Mr. Seybert, in speaking of this commerce in 1819, says, we have made much greater progress in this trade than the several nations of Europe had before us. In 1747 the British had only eight ships, and the Dutch but six, employed in the China trade. In 1789 there were at Canton, in China, three Portuguese, five Dutch, one French, one Danish, fifteen United States, twenty-one East India Company ships, and forty belonging to British subjects residing in India. In 1785 the first importations were made into the United States from China.

Our intercourse with the British East Indies was regulated by the treaty of 1794 and that of 1815. It was much greater in the begining of the century than it has been since—the imports in 1807 were five million, the average from 1821 to 1833 did not exceed two million; in 1846-7 they were one and a half million. These imports prior to the tariff of 1816 were, for the most part, low-priced cotton goods. They are now, some embroidered woollens, cotton baggings, cork, flaxseed, fruits, spices, camphor, saltpetre, segars, indigo, cordage, twine, hemp, silk. Our exports have been largest in specie. In other articles they have seldom exceeded the one-third or one-fourth of imports. In 1846-7 they did not reach one hundred thousand dollars. The British East Indies include Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, etc.

With the British West Indies, the American trade has undergone great fluctuations. It has long been a subject of dispute. Mr. Pitt threw open this trade in 1783, upon the most liberal basis, for the Americans, by a bill which he introduced into Parliament, and which was laid on the table. The orders in council soon after, almost effectually suppressed this growing trade. The cardinal motive was the monopoly to British vessels of the carrying trade between the United States and the Islands; and Lord Liverpool, in his celebrated report, in 1791, regarded it not even a subject for negotiation, that American ships in the British colonies should be treated as British ships, and congratulated his country that the orders in council had operated to the increase of British navigation compared with that of the United States, in a double ratio; but it has taken from the United States more than it has added to that of Great Britain.

In 1794, Mr. Clay negotiated a treaty with a clause favorable to our West India commerce, but it was rejected by our government on the ground that it contained another clause excluding the carriage of cotton, sugar, &c., in our ships to any part of the world. In 1802, th proposed a mutual abolition of the discriminating and coun duties of the two countries, and a committee of congress reported favorably, but from the remonstrances of the merchant classes nothing was done. In 1815, the Commercial Convention between the two powers equalized the tonnage duties with the British European powers, but left those with the American colonies in the hands of the British government. That government soon excluded the Americans entirely from the West India trade, much embarrassing our navigation interest, and rendered greatly more prosperous that of Great Britain. The President of the United States referred to the subject in his Annual Message. By paying a light duty or removing all duty from certain articles of United States produce when imported from British colonies, and a very heavy duty when imported direct, and by removing duties upon importations in the colonies, the British government secured every possible advantage, since foreign ships were not admitted to bring or carry produce to the colonies.

The Americans, in retaliation, first laid a duty on British vessels from the West Indies, and then excluded them in 1818. The complaint of the West Indies, which followed, produced an Act of Parliament in 1822, opening certain of the ports to the vessels of such countries as allowed reciprocal advantages. Congress immediately opened a direct trade but refused to remove the discriminating tonnage duty without proof that American and British vessels were received there on equal footing. To this the British refused, imposing countervailing duties at once on our vessels.

In 1825, the British opened the trade of their colonies to all foreign nations, on the condition that the British commerce and navigation should be put on a footing with the most favored nations, by those nations that had no colonies. The United States were unwilling to grant such favor, and the ports were immediately closed against us, and our acts of exclusion were revived. In 1830, an Act was passed by Congress in regard to the West India and British colonial trade, which on the interpretation given to it by the American Minister and the President, was highly favorable to British navigation. By this agreement, American vessels could carry our produce to the islands on the same terms with the British and bring back return cargoes. They were not, however, allowed to carry foreign merchandise. The English, by an act of policy, admitted in their North American colonies American produce at merely nominal duties, and suffered them to be exported thence to the West Indies by British vessels at a much lower duty than they could be received there direct from the United States. The practical effect of this was to throw the whole trade into this channel, and vastly augment the British tonnage in comparison with our own. The act, however, gave us the island trade upon perhaps the very best terms we could have expected. The English, also, had the advantage of what is called the circuitous trade, viz.: to bring a cargo to the United States; to carry one to their own colonies, and to take in at the colonies a return cargo home. This was a clear advantage over us.

Between 1795 and 1804, our exports to British West Indies, varied from two to nearly ten millions, being an average of five and a half millions; the imports varied from three to seven millions, being an average of five millions. From 1821 to 1833, the tables give no very reliable data, as the ports were sometimes opened and sometimes closed, and our trade necessarily took other channels. In none of these years did the import or export much exceed two million dollars.

At the adoption of the Constitution, our trade with France did not exceed seven million five hundred thousand dollars annually, including her colonies. Our imports were, coffee, sugar, rice, oils, fruits, brandies, liquors, cotton, laces, silk, linen, drugs, glass, hardware, etc.; our exports, fish, breadstuff, products of forests, tobacco, negroes, etc. In 1795, this trade went up to ten million dollars, but declined again very rapidly to the close of the century. In 1807 and 1808 our exports were very large, reaching from eleven to thirteen millions, which points up to 1833, they did not again pass and only once or twice equalled. Our imports from an average of one million dollars at the opening of the century averaged in 1831 to 1833 thirteen million dollars. With regard to the French islands, Mr. Pitkins thus compares their policy with that of Britain at the close of the last century. The policy of Britain was to monopolize the carriage of the articles, that of France to monopolize the articles themselves. Britain was willing the United States should have sugar and coffee if British ships carried them; France was willing the Americans might supply her plantations with what she could not supply them herself, but would not allow them to receive in return the valuable products of the islands which she monopolized to herself. Our trade increased notwithstanding. During the wars of Europe the ports were left entirely open, and France offered to secure their trade forever to the United States, on the condition their possession might be guaranteed to her. This was declined. Our trade became enormous, and we supplied the mother country through the islands. From 1795 to 1801, this trade averaged eighteen millions dollars, whilst from 1821 to 1833, it never exceeded two millions. In the first period, the imports were several times the exports, in the last the exports have generally been larger. The American trade with Hayti from 1821 to 1833, was larger than with all the French Islands.

The wars of the French Revolution, as we have remarked before, were most favorable to our neutral commerce. We supplied the Spanish Islands during most of the time, and our trade with them at the beginning of the century averaged twenty millions of dollars. The average from that period to 1820 was about five and a half millions exports. From 1820 we began to keep our accounts with Cuba and the South American States separately. From 1820 to 1833 our trade with Cuba averaged twelve millions annually, the imports invariably exceeding the exports largely, and was next in importance to that of England and France. The chief exports have been provisions, domestic manufacture, furniture, etc., etc. With the other Spanish Islands our trade from 1821 to 1833, varied from one to two millions. With Mexico, from 1835 to 1833, the average trade was about ten millions; imports generally the most; with Central America average about one-half million; with Columbia, two million dollars; Buenos Ayres, two million dollais; Chili, two million dollars; Peru, less than one million. To old Spain, herself we have exported domestic produce, etc., etc., and our trade at the opening of the century averaged six millions dollars, whereas, it has since varied from one to two millions. It was largest when the Peninsular wars raged.

With Portugal and dependencies, we have traded in wines, fruits, wheat, oil, staves, bedding, etc. From 1795 to 1801, our exports averaged five hundred thousand dollars, and imports near one million. From that period until 1820, except the years of war in Spain and Portugal, the average export was about one million. The imports and exports together have never since exceeded half a million. With the island of Madeira we have conducted about an equal trade; and with Brazil, since the government was removed there, and the other colonies, the trade from 1809 to 1820 averaged about one million dollars, since which it has gone up to from five to eight millions dollars.

From Russia we have chiefly imported hemp and duck. The average imports at the beginning of the century was one million, three hundred thousand dollars, but from 1821 to 1833, the average was near two million five hundred thousand dollars; our exports have seldom been one-half million, a very small part of which has been domestic produce. In 1810 and 1811, the export was between four and five millions dollars, a large part being destined for England. We send generally cotton, tobacco, rice, oak bark, coffee, sugar, dyewoods and spices. We also import iron, cordage, drillings, diapers, tickings, etc.

Since 1823, our accounts with Norway and Sweden have been kept together. With Sweden our trade is chiefly in iron. From 1821 to 1833 the imports averaged about one million, whilst the exports have seldom exceeded one-third of that amount. From 1795 to 1801, we traded with Swedish West Indies to the amount of one million dollars annually. The trade became much more considerable afterwards, when the trade with other islands was carried on through these. Since 1821, this trade has declined at last to about one hundred thousand dollars per annum.

The account with Denmark and Norway was conjoined until 1823. This trade, from one million of dollars in 1800, rose to one and a half millions in 1805-7. During our non-intercourse with Britain and France in 1809-10, and whilst Hamburg was occupied with the French, quantities of cotton, tobacco, sugar and coffee went to these quarters, destined for other countries. From 1812 to 1833, this trade averaged only three or four hundred thousand, the imports being scarcely anything. With the Danish as with the Swedish West Indies, our trade did once reach three to five millions of dollars. From 1821 to 1833, the average has been not far from four millions of dollars. The trade with the British Islands was conducted through them.

With Hamburgh, Bremen, and the northern ports of Germany, we traded largely before their occupation by French troops. Hamburgh has been the great depot for Germany and the North of Europe. By the Elbe and Weser, and the canals, German manufactures are brought to Hamburgh. They are the cities of imports for Germany. In 1795 our trade with these cities was one and a half millions, in 1797-8 and '99 it averaged eighteen millions dollars; the exports generally doubling, and often many times exceeding the imports, and being for the most in foreign goods. Since 1821 the trade has averaged about four and a half millions dollars.

For the same causes that the Hamburg trade advanced, that with the Netherlands did also. The continental system was never thoroughly enforced there, even under Louis Bonaparte. The average trade from 1795 to 1801 was, exports, five millions; imports, one and a half millions. From 1804 to 1807 the exports averaged near fifteen millions dollars a year, chiefly foreign produce. From 1821 to 1833 the whole trade has varied from three to four millions a year, the exports being double the imports. In 1833 the trade with Belgium was kept separate, and was one million dollars. Our exports are tobacco, rice, cotton, etc., sugar and coffee; imports, woollen, linen, spirits, and various manufactures. With the Dutch West Indies we have prosecuted considerable trade; to the extent, one time, of five to eight millions; from 1821 to 1833 it has seldom exceeded one to one and a half million. With the Dutch East Indies we conducted the carrying trade from 1795 to 1801. In the last year the exports reached four millions dollars, being coffee, spices, etc. The trade has seldom exceeded one and a half millions since.

We have exported to Italy fish, sugar, coffee, pepper, etc., and imported wines, silks, brandies, fruits, bonnets, oil, paper, rags. The trade has never exceeded three millions dollars a year, and has most generally been from one to two millions; the imports being in large excess.

Our trade with China opened in 1784. In 1785 Captain Dean, in a little sloop of eighty tons and seven men, made a successful voyage to Canton. In 1789 we had more vessels at Canton than any other nation, except Britain. The imports are teas, silks, nankeens, China-ware; with the former we supplied Europe during the wars. We have consumed, 1789 to 1800, two and a half million pounds of tea, annually; from 1801 to 1812, three million three hundred and fifty thousand pounds; from 1821 to 1833, seven millions. The Americans also prosecute trade between China and other parts of the world.

Our direct trade with Canton from 1821 to 1833, has varied from one to five million exports, and three to seven million imports. The exports are furs, ginseng, cottons, raw cotton, &c.; specie, quicksilver, opium, cloths. The specie export has sometimes reached five million, the average from 1828 to 1833 was four million dollars. We formerly conducted a large fur trade from the North-West to China in addition. Our hardy mariners and traders were found in the most perilous seas. The inhabitants of Stonington, Connecticut, says Mr. Pitkins, in their little barks of fifty to eighty tons, pursued the sealing business, finding a market now at home. The amount of furs carried into China by the Americans, from 1800 to 1803, was one million six hundred thousand dollars. From 1815 to 1817 the average was three hundred thousand dollars a year. In 1819 the Americans began to carry English goods from England to China, to the amount of near one million dollars a year. The whole value of trade with Canton, on American account, from 1804 to 1833, was, in periods of ten years:—1st period, average imports, three million dollars—exports, three million dollars; 2d. period, imports, six and a half million dollars—exports, six million dollars; 3d period, imports, five million eight hundred thousand dollars—exports, six million dollars. In 1833 the exports and imports were eight million dollars each. Our exports to Canton are specie, bills on England, and merchandise. The latter being in general one-third or one-quarter, but sometimes one-half of the whole export.

In regard to navigation, which is so important in its connection with commerce, we may remark, that the two are not necessarily co-existent in the same degree in every country. The one applies to all the various transfers of commodities from hand to hand, and the other to their transportation from place to place by water. This transportation may be between different portions of the same country, or between one country and another, and receives accordingly the designations of coastwise or foreign. The former will, in most countries, be the greater in amount, though not always. Both may be in the hands of foreigners, to a very considerable extent, and usually are. The shipping of one nation may conduct the trade of another. Some nations are more especially maritime than others, and from peculiar advantages are enabled to build and man shipping at a much lower expense; and, as ship-room, or freight, is governed by the rules of all other commodities, it can, of course, be afforded less where it costs less. There is no patriotism in any country which will employ its own shipping in preference to foreign at a higher cost. The cheapest vessel will get the freight.

As the possession of shipping is a great source of national pride, independent of the substantial advantages in supporting the naval or war power, and an immense source of profit and wealth, in the same manner with commerce or manufactures, it is not surprising that most countries have endeavored, in every way, to build up this interest among themselves, and, as far as possible, limit it among others. The utmost jealousies have been, and are still evinced. Legislation has exhausted its thousand expedients, in navigation systems, countervailings, retaliations, bounties, *et omne genus*. Treaties upon treaties have been made and broken. Every other trade in the world has flourished but free trade. The weaker nations regard this as fatal to them, and the stronger are timid in its adoption.

As early as 1670 the increase of shipping in New England was complained of by Sir Josiah Child, an English writer. The whole amount of tonnage employed in the colonial trade in 1770, is estimated at three hundred thousand tons. A report of the lords' privy council shows that the proportion owned by British merchants to that owned by the colonial, was as thirty-four to fifteen, in all the colonies. Seven-eighths of the southern shipping was British. At that period we were in the habit of selling colony-built ships in Great Britain, as a source of profit. In 1772 the colonies built one hundred and eighty-two vessels—twenty-six thousand five hundred and forty-four tons. Of these, New England built one hundred and twenty-three, Maryland, Virginia and the Carolinas and Georgia, twenty-five.

After the peace and before the adoption of the constitution, our shipping regulations were conflicting, and without regular system. Most of the States imposed duties upon foreign vessels, but New York, being most liberal, laid the foundation of her immense foreign commerce. No better proof can be alleged of the illiberality of all restrictions, and their positive injury.

Congress, however, in 1789, took the matter in hand, imposed heavy discriminating duties against foreign tonnage, prohibited the coasting trade to foreigners, and, by such duties upon tea, secured the China trade to our own citizens. The act of 1790, imposed a duty of from thirty to fifty cents a ton on foreign vessels, that on American being but six cents, and also ten per cent. higher duty upon merchandise imported in such vessels. On a vessel of six hundred tons, including the light-house duty of fifty cents the ton, the duties would be five hundred to six hundred dollars, and about as much more, on the lowest estimate, on her freight. Here then we have a protection to the American vessel of twelve hundred dollars, equivalent to thirty to fifty per cent. on the value of cargo freight.

In 1789 the tonnage of New York, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, S. Carolina and Georgia, was estimated at four hundred and thirty-seven thousand dollars, of which two hundred and eighty thousand was American, being three-fifths. For all the colonies in 1791, the foreign vessels employed in the foreign trade, was 41.4 to the 100, compared with the American vessels—the French was but one-thirtieth, Spanish one-forty-eighth, Netherlands one-fifty-seventh.

Under this navigation law, foreign shipping began gradually to decline in our ports, whilst the American rapidly advanced. By 1811 the foreign was but three-quarters to the hundred, owing, however, in a considerable degree, to European wars, etc. Indeed, our tonnage was already but a third less than that of all Europe in 1676, according to Sir William Petty. "In twenty years," says Mr. Seybert, "we raised our tonnage so as to be equal to that of Great Britain one hundred years after they had passed the navigation act." The lords' privy council, in England, referred to this rapid decline in their navigation with the United States, which they exhibited by statistical results. They proposed reciprocity treaties, but not to extend to their colonies. To this trade they could not think of admitting foreigners on equal terms. By the acts of 1797 and 1802, they imposed heavy countervailing and tonnage duties upon our vessels. The King, however, was soon after authorized to remit the duties if it could be done reciprocally. A committee of Congress admitted the British had secured by their duties the carrying of our tobacco, cotton, rice indigo, etc.; but their proposed compromise was met by the protests of the merchants, and laid on the table. In 1812 an additional duty of one dollar and fifty cents per ton on foreign ships was laid on, it was said, for revenue, though it produced but eight thousand dollars more than the lower duties. A convention between the two countries, in 1815, equalized the duties where the vessels were freighted with the produce of their own countries. We have seen how this resulted, and the other restriction acts of our own government, in 1817. In 1818 it was stated in Congress, that the Americans transported but two million one hundred and seventy-seven thousand nine hundred and twenty-four dollars of the trade with the West Indies and British North American Colonies, whilst the English carried eleven million three hundred and twenty-two thousand and seventy-six dollars of the most bulky articles, one-half being of our own production.

Mr. Seybert, whilst he maintains we have gained so much by our navigation laws, admits that our position as a neutral nation during the wars of Europe, did very much. But he says, independent of these wars, viz., before the breaking out of the English and French war, in 1793, our tonnage had greatly increased. It would be easy to account for this from natural causes.

It appears, that at the close of the last century, little over one-quarter of the tonnage engaged in the trade of France was French; and during the wars British ship building greatly declined, which was the case with ours on the return of peace.

In 1810 the shipping of the United States was one ton to every 5·8 inhabitants, and its whole value, at fifty dollars a ton, seventy-one million two hundred and thirty-nine thousand one hundred and fifty dollars. In England, in 1813, the registered tonnage was one to 6.69 inhabitants.*

Vessels of five hundred tons have been built in the west. Before the revolution, we annually built about twenty thousand tons; the average from 1803 to 1816 was over one hundred and two thousand tons. During the greater part of the same period, the average in Britain was but one hundred thousand, but this was during the European wars.

In regard to the number of seamen, it appears that the English varied at the end of the last century, from one man to thirteen to one man to twenty tons; the average being one to fifteen, The Americans employ one man to seventeen tons, except the fisheries, which is one to twelve and a half tons

Mr. Pitkins states the whole British tonnage, in 1829, on authentic returns, nineteen thousand one hundred and ten vessels, tonnage two million one hundred and ninety-nine thousand nine hundred and fifty-nine. These were registered, and included all but the smaller vessels. Mr. Marshall, a British writer, in 1833, states the whole number of British vessels in foreign commerce about six thousand seven hundred and fifty, or one million one hundred thousand tons. The whole British registered tonnage, in 1829, only exceeded that of the United States, in 1832, three hundred and twenty-eight thousand six hundred and fifteen tons. On the authority of Mr. Marshall's statement, in regard to the number of trips made by each vessel, Mr. Pitkins estimates British coasting trade in 1832, including Ireland, eight hundred and twenty-eight thousand tons. In 1830 it was stated in Congress, that British shipping had increased, from 1814 to 1828, fifty per cent., whilst other nations trading with her, but three per cent. Mr. Marshall, however, asserts a diminution in British shipping in the same time.

A committee of Congress, in 1830, doubted that the foreign wars gave a first impulse to our navigation. This impulse, say they, was from the rich and increasing agricultural resources, the removal of all the countervailing laws of the States, our commercial enterprise, and a foreign commerce without restrictions.†

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* By calculation made in 1808, it appears one ton is required for the carriage of every forty-one or fifty-one dollars exports American products.—Seybert.

† The reader has perceived the present article is only brought down to 1833, we intend its completion to date in future volumes.

ART. IV. THE SCUPPERNONG AND WINE MAKING.

HAVING made estimates of the cost and profit of Southern vineyards, somewhat in detail in several of your previous volumes, it occurred to me since sending them on for publication, to send also for your excellent periodical an account of two scuppernong vines, I planted for a neighbor about 12 years since. The two vines in cost, amounted to 50 cents; and for setting them out I charged nothing, as a gratuity to a good neighbor and friend, and to give an impulse to the vineyard cause near at home. They were put on the side of the garden next his grove of oak trees around the dwelling. The expense of working the ground and of trimming them laterally in time of growth, and fall to keep them from becoming bushy, was trifling; say 50 cents a year, for two years, till they began to yield the worth of their attendance; and then for five years thereafter, their yield more than repaid ther expenses; including posts and scaffolding, near and under the trees to which the vines were directed, and upon which after reaching, their branches were suffered to expand. This brings them to their eighth year, when they bore abundantly, and each yielded its barrel of wine beisides a plenty of the most delicious fruit for a large family. For three years past, each vine has yielded enough grapes for two barrels of wine as well as family fruit; and with no cost worth speaking of for support or scaffolding, the oak trees supplying these. Their branches extend some 100 feet among the trees, and four or five pretty large shade trees are literally loaded with grapes. A beautiful sight to behold.

To epitomize the cost and profit, say—

Two well rooted Scuppernong vines, - - -	50
Setting them out and stakes for first supporting the main stems,	50
For attendance and trimming, 2 years, - - -	1 00
	$2 00

Or say for all cost and trouble, their fruit for family use apart from the yield of wine, abundantly pays. The widow of the gentleman for whom I set out the vines, makes the wine with about a fourth brandy and 1 lb. of common sugar per gallon. And a most excellent article it is, admired by her neighbors and all that partake of it, readily commanding a dollar per gallon when she sells it.

The annual clear profit of the two vines may be estimated as follows:

60 Gallons of wine at 1 dollar per gallon, - - - -		$60 00
15 Gallons brandy, at 75 cents per gallon, - -	11 25	
60 lbs. of common sugar at 8 cents per lb., - -	4 80	
3 Hands a day to gather the grapes and make the wine, at 50 cents each, - - - - - -	1 50	
Cask to contain the wine, - - - - - -	1 00	
One person to superintend the process of making the wine and to tun the liquor, - - - - - -	1 00	
Racking the liquor into another cask, - -	1 00	20 55
Profit, - - - - - -		$39 45

So about forty dollars is the clear annual profit of these two scuppernong vines, indicating their worth to be seven hundred dollars at 6 per cent interest; and that from the trifling investment of about two dollars. Can any agricultural profit exceed this? And according to the sound maxim, that "what has been done may be done again under like circumstances," there is no telling how vast the agricultural revenue to all the South may be from this grape alone, if our citizens were once "wide awake to its great merits."

But as the scuppernong juice is the basis for wines of every grade of excellence, and as I make them in quality and price from one dollar to six per gallon, indicating different degrees of excellence, the aforesaid profits might have been greatly enhanced by using doubly refined sugar as the safe-keeping, enriching ingredient in making the wine.

I prefer, however, bringing forward examples of wine made in the most simple and most safe way; or so made that none need fear imitating the process. For if any operate with scuppernong juice mixed well in tunning, or after putting into the cask with one-third good spirits, or the quantity Mr. Longworth advises in his letter of 1847, in Patent Office report, there is no danger but that the result will be a good safe keeping wine, or very excellent medicinally and otherwise.

Indeed, spirits are safer than sugar as the ingredient to be added to any juice for wine. And therefore, the people of Madeira, and other vintners of Europe, making the least wine, do wisely as to their profit at least, in using a plenty of spirits. In using sugar more attention is required to rack off the wine from one cask into another, and otherwise to guard against acidity and injury, or spoiling. But with about one third good spirits when incorporated by shaking in the cask after the juice of any kind of grape has been poured in duly prepared by straining through folds of a woollen cloth; the result, in a month or so is a good safe-keeping wine. After it is drawn off by a fauset a little above one of the lower ends of the cask on its side, some quantity of sediment will be found indicating that a gentle fermentation had taken place. But any one wishing a wine of highest grade of excellence from genuine scuppernong juice, can have it by using at least three lbs. of doubly refined loaf sugar per gallon, and racking from one cask to another several times in the course of a few months. And in this case it will be found that fermentation has taken place, and alcohol generated in the wine as the pure safe-keeping principle, or such as pervading all vegetable creation as the preservative part thereof. Indeed, by adding either spirits or sugar to make wine, it is merely increasing the very principles or pure ingredients in grape juice that constitute the basis nature has provided for enriching and preserving the wine. For, destitute of alcoholic and saccharine principles, there can be no wine.

By good spirits for making wine, I mean either brandy divested of any peculiar taste by age, or any kind of strong spirits, as new brandy or whiskey divested of any peculiar taste by being doubly rectified through charcoal and sand. I rectify so as to make the best of pure spirits out of any strong spirit liquor. The wine therefore has the peculiar taste of the grape from which it is made; and this taste is one of the chief excellences of the wine. I have tried distilling grape juice and mixing the brandy thereof with the same kind of juice as that distilled. But I cannot myself perceive that the wine made with such ingredients has a decided superiority over that made with any sort of well rectified spirits. I here remark, that as to preserving the peculiar exquisite zest of the genuine scuppernong grape in its wine, nothing is superior as an ingredient for enriching and safe keeping, to doubly refined white sugar. And the reason appears to be, that nothing approaches so near the taste of this grape as the delicately fine taste of said sugar. And the wine made from this sugar and genuine scuppernong juice is as limpid as water and as exquisite in taste as can be well imagined. Gentlemen and ladies in Raleigh, our capital, to whom I sell it yearly, call it nectar. I call it Scuppernong Madeira. But to make it genuine, the juice must be from the genuine grape or scuppernong proper. I call it scuppernong proper, to distinguish it from the dark colored scuppernong so called, or a sort of muscadine, and also to distinguish it from many spurious kinds of white grapes called scuppernong; or such as sometimes are raised from scuppernong seed.

The seed grapes, too, like the seed of apples very rarely produce any thing like the original. I have had quite a number of seedlings bearing from the genuine scuppernong, and of almost all colors and sizes; the fruit, though all resembling the muscadine family of grapes; and of all I never found but one vine that produced fruit any way near the excellency of the parent vine. The only way to propogate the genuine, I find, is by layers and grafting. For scuppernong cuttings seldom or never succeed. As there are many spurious kinds of scuppernong in the South that tend to disgrace the genuine, I close this article, written in rather a desultory way, by describing the

Genuine White Scuppernong Proper.—From most reliable information, this grape has its origin and name from Scuppernong Island, in Roanoke river, in lower part of North Carolina. I presume its greatest perfection is had in its native place and state; though doing well, I learn in most locations south of latitude 27½°, as in Florida, as a most intelligent gentleman writes me. Its vine stem and leaves resemble the common muscadine of the woods, plentiful in most parts of our Southern Union, stem hard and smooth. But while in shape of the leaves this resemblance is marked, their color is a whitish light green instead of dark. The berries like the muscadine and fox grapes, grow in clusters. In general three or four compose a cluster; but I have frequently counted near twenty. The genuine scuppernong grape is round, skin smooth, color a bright lightish green when *unripe*, but *ripe*, it assumes a whitish yellow hue, though some berries when ripe, in color are a greenish white and almost transparent. The berries generally about three inches diameter, but not unfrequently I have measured them three and a half inches round, and in two instances four. A plate of genuine ripe scuppernong grapes are so aromatic as to perfume a room with a delightful fragrance.

ART. V.—SOME REMARKS ON AGRICULTURE AND OUR AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

THE first cultivator, the Robinson Crusoe of his day, says Mr. Carey in his ingenious work upon the Past, the Present and the Future, has neither axe nor spade. He works alone. Population being small, land of course is abundant. He may select for himself without fear of his title being disputed. But after the appropriation of soils, the extension of industry and numbers, a state of things altogether different begins to exist.

Though, in its beginning, agriculture be a rude pursuit, requiring but little of industry or of intelligence, in its progress through a later stage of society, and as population becomes dense, it arises to the rank of a science requiring and admitting of the highest development of skill, the most extensive researches and profoundest judgment. The primitive husbandry of the Hindoos and that of the best class of English farmers are almost at an infinite remove from each other.

There are various adequate causes for the slow and interrupted progress of agricultural science all over the world. In new countries like America, the extent and fertility of lands have rendered any other than the most moderate attention, in general, unnecessary. In all countries the impossibility of any combinations among farmers, or division of labors such as is found in the mechanical and manufacturing pursuits, and which have carried them so soon to their present high degree of perfection, is felt and acknowledged. Besides what is insisted upon by Mr. Malthus and his followers, and we believe with great truth, the later "applications of capital" to land, or in other words *improvements* are not attended with so high a per centage of profit as those of an earlier date. Though by careful attention to soils their productiveness may long be preserved, their resuscitation when exhausted is a hopeless and often unproductive business. Indeed, Adam Smith states the principle broadly, that agriculture is not so much intended to increase as to direct the fertility of the soil.

Though, on a comparison with other pursuits, agriculture be found to possess no particular advantage in regard to pecuniary profits, and, in fact, to be behind many others in this respect, yet has it in all ages, even the most ancient, been the subject of general preference among men and nations. The Bible affords us many beautiful pictures of nomade agricultural life. The early princes of Greece labored at the plough with their own hands, and the great poets and philosophers of that country have not thought it unworthy of their muse or the highest philosophy. The genius of Homer and Hesiod, and the science of Theophrastus are recognized here. The Romans interwove agriculture curiously in their religion and superstitious rites. Their most distinguished statesmen and generals had patronymic names, derived from that of some vegetable of which their ancestors were the successful producers. The leading men of the state toiled in the fields, as Cincinnatus, Curius, Dentatus, Fabricius and Regulus. Thus was it as Plinny held that the earth took pleasure in being cultivated by the hands of men crowned with laurels and decorated with triumphal honors. The names of Cato, Varro, Virgil, Columella, Pliny, Palladius, &c., belong to the bibliography of agricultural science.

Well has it been observed by Dr. Smith, the beauty of the country, besides the pleasures of a country life, the tranquility which it promises, and, wherever the injustice of human laws does not disturb it, the independence which it really affords, have charms that more or less affect every body, and as to cultivate the ground was the original destination of man, so in every stage of his existence he seems to realize a predilection for this original employment.

There is one consideration, however, which should be brought home to the agriculturalist and enforced upon every occasion, and it is, that although, despite the teachings of Mons. Quesnai, he be not the only—he and his art are in all the world, without question, the greatest—producer of wealth. The gross product of agriculture will always greatly exceed that of manufactures and commerce, even when they are at their greatest advantage. Thus, in Great Britain, four millions of agriculturalists raise a sufficiency of food for themselves and for fourteen millions besides, who are employed in trade and manufactures. In France the agriculturalists are 2 to 1 to other classes, in America 12 to 1, in Poland 20 to 1.*

Let it be remembered, too, that agriculture and agricultural improvements make the only *permanent* additions to a country's greatness, or provide for all the contingencies of the future. No country in which the science of agriculture is carried to high perfection, and which presents the picture of general agricultural development and improvement, has ever yet or can ever be swept away by those causes which have overwhelmed and destroyed many of the great commercial and manufacturing powers, leaving often only to conjecture the sites which they occupied. What vestiges remain to us of Tyre and Sidon, of Palmyra and Alexandria, Venice, Genoa and Pisa, Florence and the Hanse Towns, great commercial and manufacturing communities of bye-gone days ?†

When the scourges of the Roman Empire swept down from the north into the fertile fields of the Mediterranean, the law of arm rather than of agriculture usurped the sway. Industry in Europe was paralyzed, and upon its ruins rose the iron rule of the feudal system which resolved the great masses of society into an absolute and hopeless bondage fatal to all improvement. Fields were converted into forests for chase. The domain of the king reached over all the lands in his realm, and he distributed them out to his favorites to be held at his arbitrary will and pleasure. Thus did those lordly chieftains, independent of all the world but their sovereign, and brooking little dependence even upon him, assert their territorial rights and parcel them out in minor proportions, to the vassals, leet-men, yeomanry or people, with ingenious tenures, which exhausted the products of labor and enterprise in the rapacious exactions of a Suzerain lord and master. But when the feudal system tottered upon its base and fell at last in a mighty ruin, scattering its castellated remains over Europe, the world began that rapid stride in the career of progress which has crowded into a generation the events of a previous thousand years.‡

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* Allison. † Adam Smith. ‡ Commercial Rev. iv. 443.

The escape of science from the thraldom of bigotry and hypothesis, the regeneration of man from the tyrannies of despotic power, the growth of towns and cities, the enlarged foreign policy and commerce of states, the immense facilities of internal communication, have all been instrumental in advancing to a high state of improvement the agriculture and agricultural classes of most civilized nations.

From the earliest permanent settlement in America, agriculture became the chief employment and support of the people. The first colonists, where the land would admit, went to work in good earnest, and where it would not, as we are told by Mr. Burke, they went out to struggle with the monsters of the great deep. The colonial charters, and in fact the whole policy of the mother country, however absurdly she may have repressed the spirit of manufacturing and commercial industry, were always attended with the very best designs towards the promotion of agriculture. As this pursuit in the infancy of the colonies came to be interrupted by Indian wars, internal dissentions, disease, or the wild search after precious metals, there were induced periods of destitution and famine, of which history not unfrequently makes mention. For whatever else a people may be dependant upon their neighbors, especially when removed by the breadth of oceans, to no extent and for no period is it possible to be dependant for the articles of daily food and nourishment, without at times the most frightful results. It would require all the navies in the world to transport a sufficiency of food to support the people of Ireland a single year.

The date of the first growth of the colony of Virginia is fixed in 1613 or 1614, when the system of community of property in all the results of the year's industry was set aside, and the lands parcelled out among settlers in proportions of fifty acres each. Then began the advance of agriculture and population.

The agricultural products of the United States have been classed as follows:—

1. Those which constitute vegetable food, as wheat, flour, rice, indian corn, rye, peas, beans, oats, potatoes, &c.

2. The products of animals, as beef, tallow, hides, butter and cheese, pork and lard, or the animals themselves when exported.

3. Cotton and sugar.

4. Tobacco.

5 Other products.

We shall make a few cursory remarks upon each, beginning with:—

WHEAT.—This staple was brought from Europe by the first colonists, where it was known and in use from the earliest periods. Its peculiar adaptation to the soil and climate of the Middle and Western States has caused its production to augment in an extraordinary ratio. Perhaps one-half of the present crop is now realized west of the mountains. The unlimited territories of the Union in the north-west, including even Oregon, which have yet to be taken into cultivation, many of the greatest fertility, render it almost impossible to estimate the future amount of this crop.

There are no means of determining the annual growth of wheat in the United States prior to the census of 1840, except by approximate calculations founded upon the export, and we must be dependant upon this census more or less for later estimates.

It is known that in 1770, 751,240 bushels of wheat, and 448,868 barrels of bread and flour were exported from the United States, equal to very nearly three millions of bushels. The returns after this are not satisfactory until after the adoption of the constitution.

Our chief markets for wheat have been the West Indies, Spain and Portugal, and Great Britain. The West Indies have always been a customer, and in time of short harvests Britain has taken large quantities. During the troubles in Spain and Portugal in 1811, '12 and '13, our exports in that quarter were enormous.

With a sufficient foreign market, the produce of grain in the United States might be stimulated to almost any extent. In the supply of European nations, the powers of the Baltic are our boldest competitors, and it has been supposed, though we think without good reason, that except in extraordinary seasons, they must destroy the value of our competition.

In 1840, the British consuls in the wheat-growing regions of Europe made answer to a circular of Lord Palmerston, in which they very nearly agreed that the productions of these countries are not susceptible of any augmentation without extraordinary improvements, which are not to be expected. The roads, also, are execrable, and the seaports too far removed. The gross products of all these countries available for export, they estimate at about eighteen million bushels—not exceeding one-seventh the crop of the Union. In Mr. Ellsworth's report to Congress, we see the disadvantages under which Dantzic—one of the most important grain districts—labors in comparison with the United States. It appears the grain is brought from Poland in rude flatboats, open to the weather, at twenty-five cents per bushel. From this exposure, it must afterwards be dried and stored, at an expense of six cents per bushel; freight thence to England, fifteen cents per bushel—equal to forty-six cts. The whole expense from Illinois to Liverpool, he estimates at thirty-eight. The crops upon the continent, too, are much more precarious than in the United States, and exports are frequently interrupted by prohibitions, which do not take place with us.*

The cost of producing wheat in the United States is thus given from actual returns, by Mr. Burke. The amounts are average:

In New Hampshire	1 10
" New York, west	64
" Pennsylvania	40
" Ohio, northern	50
" Michigan	28 to 67½
" Indiana	25 to 35

Thus, a barrel of flour from New York at Liverpool, would be:

5 bushels wheat a 64 cents	3 20
Grinding, &c., 30c.; bbl. 33c.	0 63
Freight to N. Y., on canals, &c.	0 68
" Liverpool, average	0 39
Insurance, etc.	0 25
	5) 5 15
Price in Liverpool, per bushel wheat	1 03

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* For full statistics of wheat see previous volumes, and especially vol. 1.

RICE was known and cultivated in the East, time out of memory, and has, in every age, constituted the chief article of food in those populous countries. It is cultivated in parts of South America, in Hungary, Lombardy, Westphalia, Italy, etc. A crop has even been obtained upon the Thames. The best rice in the world, however, is that of Carolina. As early as 1666, in a description of Carolina, by Horne, it is said, that "the meadows are very proper for rice." Its first introduction was accidental. Landgrave Smith, Governor of the Province, who had been in Madagascar, having a garden of low ground in Charleston, thought an attempt might be made in rice, and it most fortunately happened, about the same time, 1694, a vessel in distress, from Madagascar, put into that port. In the cook's bag was a little rough rice, which was presented to the Governor. He planted it; and from this small beginning has grown up the great rice region of that State, which has been such an exhaustless source of wealth.

The records of exportation of rice previous to 1720, are not extant, though in 1707 John Archdale mentions seventeen ships from that colony, with rice, skins, pitch, tar, &c.*

INDIAN CORN, or maize, was found native among the Indians of America, on every part of the continent. It is the original and spontaneous product of the New World, and it may be believed, will become an extensive article of food in other countries, as it has always been, in some of its various forms, in ours. So much persuaded was the late Mr. Cobbett of the importance of this grain, that he made every exertion to introduce its growth and consumption into England, as a cheaper and better article of food than any they used. After the discovery of America, maize was introduced into Europe, and is now cultivated in the southern parts. The very strong prejudices which the English have had against the use of corn, is now giving way, and the late Irish famines must do much to remove it altogether. The people of that country had an idea once, that to eat it would turn them black.†

Maize is the crop, of all others, says Mr. Johnson, best adapted to the United States, where it is cultivated on every variety of soil, from one extremity of the Union to the other. It constitutes the mainstay of the cereal farmer, most depended upon to furnish food and provender to man and beast. There is no plant, certainly none of such vigorous growth, which will so long continue highly productive when raised year after year upon the same soil.‡

Stock and cattle raising, fall more naturally within the agricultural class than within any other. It is from the soil that these derive subsistence; and some degree of attention to that soil is always necessary, even with the most favorable pasturage.

There is a great difference in the attention paid to stock raising in the infancy and maturity of society. Where the lands are unimproved, cattle are more numerous and cheaper than bread. After agriculture is far advanced the pastures become insufficient, and cultivated lands will be applied to this business. The value of stock must, then, in addition to the expense of attendance, be at least equal to that of the crops which might be realized by tillage. Bread and butcher's meat come, then, to a par. Indeed, if ordinary pastures were not as profitable as cultivated land, they would be soon cultivated.

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* See vol. 1 for a complete history of rice, in all its particulars, by Mr. Allston, of South Carolina.

† See English Review lately, article on Ireland.

‡ Whether corn be of Asiatic or American origin, ably discussed, see Johnson's Dict. Maize. In our June number, 1846, appear elaborate statistics of Indian corn.

The United States, from a very early period, had a sufficiency of animal products to make large exportations abroad. This portion of our export becomes every year more diversified and extensive. "Though all the cattle," observed Adam Smith, near a century ago, "of the European colonies in America, were originally carried from Europe, they soon multiplied there, and became of so little value, that even horses were allowed to run wild in the woods without thinking it worth while to claim them."[*]

COTTON.—This great staple, which has raised a revolution in the world, and changed almost entirely the character and comfort of the clothing which indigent man usually requires, belongs principally to the history of our country, and, we might say, the history of our very generation.

Cotton is indigenous to America. Though not the most beautiful in its fabrics, it yields to none in its cheapness, comfort and health, in the coldest as in the hottest climates.

It is conjectural how remote are the uses of cotton, or to what extent. From the word carpas, in Esther—oriental for cotton—it is supposed the Jews were acquainted with it. Herodotus, four hundred years before Christ, makes mention of the tree as growing in India, from which cloth was made. Some of the generals of Alexander, in the East, noticed and described the cotton wool. The use of this fabric among the Greeks and Romans goes back but a little beyond the Christian era, and it was then only as an article of the most exquisite luxury.

It has long been supposed that cotton cloths were made in remote antiquity in Egypt, and that the mummies were embalmed in them. Even Virgil held

> "Soft wool, from downy groves, the Æthiop weaves,"[†]

but Mr. Thompson, of England, has forever closed the vexatious question, by subjecting the numerous specimens of this cloth to a powerful microscope. In no case has he discovered a single fibre of cotton in them.[‡]

The Latin and botanical word for this plant is *gossypium*. From the resemblance of its pod to a quince, *Cotoneum Malum*, the present name Cotton is derived.

The culture of cotton began first in the East. The Chinese produce largely, but also import from Surat and Bombay and other parts of India, and, what is remarkable, that although cotton was cultivated in gardens from remote antiquity in China, yet it was never turned to any account until the end of the thirteenth century. In central Africa the cotton plant abounds.

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[*] According to Ulloa, in 1730, the value of an ox in Buenos Ayres, was 21½d 45c.

[†] Domestic Life and Manufactures of the Ancients.

[‡] Later examinations have established that cotton, as well as wool, was used for mummy cloths. See Dr. Hawks' late work on Egypt.

When the Spaniards first landed in Mexico they found growing native, and in considerable perfection, this inestimable wool. There were neither wool, hemp nor silk, and the flax was not used for clothing. The modern Mexicans have lost the perfection of their ancient art of cotton manufacture. The plant was also found wild by Columbus, in Hispaniola. Most of the early American discoverers agree that cotton was one of the articles of dress among the American savages at the period of discovery. In 1726 cotton was a staple product of Hispaniola. In 1753 Jamaica exported 2000 bags; Barbadoes several hundred annually. In 1787 it was grown in eight or ten of the West India islands in small quantities.

One hundred and thirty years before the revolution it is said by Seabrook that the British endeavored to force its culture upon the planters of Virginia. In a discription of Carolina, 1666, we learn the lands are capable of growing cotton wool. An account by Wilson, 1682, mentions its growth, from imported seed, in that province. Miss Lucus' note to her father, in 1739, mentions her efforts to bring cotton, etc., to perfection in Charleston. In 1736, on the shore of the Chesapeake cotton was raised as a garden plant, and 40 years after in the same way in Maryland, New Jersey and Delaware. When the American war broke out, General Delegal, of South Carolina, cultivated 30 acres green seed cotton near Savannah. Its production was recommended by the congress of Carolina in 1775,

Among the reports of the colonial office in Paris is one of 1760, showing the great advantages Louisiana might derive from the cotton culture—the difficulty of separating the seed from the wool—its introduction from St. Domingo—importance of introducing East India seed—machinery, &c.

Tench Coxe, Esq., of Philadelphia, stated in his book, 1786, that the people of this country, south of Annapolis, in Maryland, were not impressed with any belief of their capacity to produce cotton wool in any considerable quantity. Mr. Coxe had very different views.

The earliest exports of American cotton were from Charleston, in 1748, viz.:—seven bags of wool. In 1770 ten bales were shipped to Liverpool from the American colonies. That the increase was very slow we may infer from the doubt expressed in England, in 1784, whether all America produced so much as eight bales, and the course of Mr. Jay, in 1792, who regarded cotton so unimportant that he signed a treaty stipulating against its importation into Britain, for the advantage of the navigation laws of that country. Congress refused their assent to the treaty.

The exports of Cotton from the United States were in—

1785,—— 14 bags.
1786,—— 6 "
1787,——109 "
1788,——389 "
1789,——842 "
1790,—— 81 "

The accounts of exportation previous to 1790 are involved in much confusion. McCulloch states the country did not export a pound before that time. He does not give the average of importation into Great Britain higher than 40,000 bales per annum, previous to 1784, and in 1786 but 19,900,000 lbs., as follows:—

From British West Indies,	5,801,000
" French & Spanish Col.	5,500,000
" Dutch Col.	1,600,000
" Portuguese Col.	2,000,000
" Smyrna & Turkey,	5,000,000
	19,900,000

or about 45,000 bags of present capacity. But as the English were the last European nation to take up the manufacture of cotton, the European consumption of cotton could not in any case have exceeded thirty-five million pounds in 1790, or about 60,000 bales. In that year Mr. Woodbury estimates the United States product as $\frac{1}{243}$ part of the growth of the whole world.

Napoleon thought it possible to introduce the cotton culture into France, and employed Monsieur Lasteyrie to give instructions upon the subject.

All the varieties of herbaceous, hirsutum and arborescent cotton, are grown in the United States; the two former comprise the green seed, and the latter the sea island. Mr. Seabrook attributes the excellence of Louisiana cotton to a cross with the sea island.

The history of this last cotton is curious and interesting. The seed is black, and of Persian origin, though originally here from Bahama. It was first planted in Georgia 1786. It would appear that the soil adapted to it is very limited, chiefly the low sandy islands on the Carolina and Georgia coast, though it is claimed also for Florida. The first crop attempted to be raised was in 1788. In early times the product of this crop was most valuable. Mr. Seabrook paid for his plantation in two years! Some of the finest varieties of this cotton were sold by Mr. Burden in 1828 for $2 a pound!

We have said sufficient of East India cottons. Those of South America are chiefly the Pernambuco, Maranham, Bahia, Para, etc. The Pernambuco is best, and was long considered equal to sea island. The cotton of Smyrna is very inferior. That of Egypt is very fine, and the culture has been partially revived after it had almost been lost. Most of the West India cottons are long staple.*

SUGAR.—This crop is almost entirely confined to Louisiana, though a limited supply is obtained from Florida and Texas. Small patches of cane are cultivated in many of the southern states, and the maple sugar is no inconsiderable product of our yankee brethren.

The culture of sugar was recommended in the earliest days of Louisiana, and we are told by E. J. Forstall, Esq., that so soon as 1725–6 it was cultivated on the Jesuists' plantation, who introduced it in the then suburb St. Mary, now the most flourishing part of the city. Dr. Monette fixes the period of introduction 1751, though he is certainly too late. Mr. De Breuil in 1758 erected on his plantation, where now stands the third municipality, the first sugar mill. The enterprise being successful, others soon followed. The manufacture was very rude, and only suited home consumption. A ship-load was sent to France in 1765, but one half ran away in molasses. This was the first adventure.

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* See previous volumes on cotton, and especially Vol. 1, April No.

In the hands of Spain, the sugar industry nearly perished in Louisiana, and was not revived until 1791, when the first sugar house was put up under this goverment. "Nobody," says Judge Rost "imagined that sugar could be made of the juice, and when Mr. Bore tried his experiment, hundreds from the city and coast assembled to witness. To use his own language 'but they remained outside of the building, at a respectable distance from the sugar maker, whom they regarded as a sort of magician. The second strike was out, the sugar maker (from the West Indies,) stirred carefully the first, and then advancing towards the assembled crowd, told them with all the gravity of his craft, 'it grains;' and from the Balize to the Dubuque, from the Wabash to the Yellow Stone, the great, the all absorbing news of the colony was, the juice of the cane had grained in Lower Louisiana.'"*

It is difficult to determine the sugar crop of Louisiana in the years between the American purchase and 1820. In 1818 it is stated at 25,000 hhds. It was not until 1822 that steam power was introduced by Messrs. Gordon & Forstall.

Until 1831 it was supposed Lower Louisiana was unfit for refining, and even so admitted by its Senators in Congress, but a shipment to the north at that time, which took the premium, decided the question.

Since this period, the culture and manufacture of sugar-cane have gone on advancing from year to year, and the most extraordinary improvements have been made in the agricultural, and by the march of chemistry in the manufacturing departments.

TOBACCO.—The history of tobacco is altogether modern. It is not quite three centuries since its first introduction into Europe from Mexico, or from Tobago in the West Indies, thus deriving its name, according to some. The American savages at the period of discovery, were in the habit of using it, and its smoke they conceived an acceptable burnt offering to the Great Spirit. We are all familiar with the strong opposition made to the use of this weed in its early history, by those in authority. It required more than King James' tobacco blast to check the growing demand, or Pope Urban's bull.

Tobacco was first cultivated by the colonists in Virginia in 1616, and by 1622 the product from the colony was 60,000. In an account of Carolina, 1680, it is said that tobacco of an excellent sort grew well, and sold from 5 to 8 shillings a pound, though as Virginia supplied the whole European demand, little was cultivated. It, therefore, does not appear according to Dr. Ramsay, among the exports of Carolina till 1783, and then only 643 hhds. The export by the close of the century reached as high as 10,000 hhds., but soon began to deline for the more profitable results in cotton, and is now nothing at all.

In 1639 the Assembly of Virginia ordered the whole crop of tobacco, exceeding 120,000 pounds, to be burnt. The report of commissioners in 1709 gives the export of the previous ten years, annually, 28,868,666 pounds, about 11,000,0000 of which were consumed in Great Britain. By 1776, the annual export reached 40,000,000, of which but 7,000,000 were used in Britain. In 1775, the export of the colonies reached 101,828,617 pounds, of which 27,000,000 remained on hand, or were consumed in Britain. During the revolution, the average export did not exceed 12,000,000 pounds, of which one half remained in England.

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*Ag. Address

The average export of tobacco for the 21 years ending 1835, varies but slightly from the average export for the four years previous to the revolution. Thus, for a period of sixty years, it is observed by Mr. Johnson, the exportation of leaf tobacco has been stationary. For this state of things various reasons are assigned: chiefly, the enlarged production in Europe, and enormus tariffs levied upon the article there, &c. The American consumption in 1835 was estimated at 100,000,000, worth 20,000,000 dollars. It is impossible to state the growth of foreign countries, though in 1820 France alone produced 32,887,000, about one-third of the export of the United States the same year.

In the old States, the production of tobacco has declined greatly, and the product been transferred to the west. Even here the encouragement given to grain, and the withdrawal of labor to hemp, precludes the probability of larger production, whilst prices rule at anything like the present. The hopes of a larger foreign demand, now much increased since European stocks appear not to increase with larger exportation, showing increased use, and as foreign restrictions come to be removed, will cause a vast extension of this industry. Mr. Chapman, in a speech in Congress, 1847, remarks, an estimate was made by Mr. Dodge, an intelligent agent, sent by this government to different parts of Europe to examine into the state of the tobacco trade, by which he shows that 422,344 hhds. would be exported to Europe, and consumed there under a moderate rate of duties. Our late treaty with Hanover, it is supposed wlll open a much more extensive German market to this staple.*

These, though the most important of the articles of our agricultural trade, are by no means the most important of our industry. In the seven articles of barley, rye, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, beans, peas, we raise annually $140,000,000, making a reasonable advance upon the census returns of 1840. The value of the hay and straw crops, meaning by the last the blades of Indian corn, &c. alone, is estimated at $180,000,000, or four times that of the cotton crop. We have in hemp and flax, $17,000,000. The product of gardens is estimated at $45,000,000; of the dairy, $41,000,000. In the simple article eggs, $5,186,200. Product of the forests, including lumber, furs and skins, $21,000,000; in fire wood, $37,000,000.†

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*See Vol. II, Oct. No., for Tobacco Statistics.

†The census of 1850, which will be published next year, must embrace much more reliable information than that of 1840, from the pains which are being taken. We shall then have a correct statement of our products, and no doubt astound the world by their magnitude. The progress of no nation upon earth, in ancient or modern times, has shown such results. It is our intention to give in the Review a series of papers analyzing and discussing the various statistics of this census for the federal Union and the States.

ART. VI.—SUPPOSITITIOUS REVIEWS.

TIERRA DE GUERRA.—BY J. M. LEGARE.

It was not long before the grey light crept down the side of the *barranca*, where we left our adventurers, and as soon as objects close at hand were distinguishable, the pair resumed their journey, being desirous of avoiding the observation of the Chaxul Indians. They found an indistinct path at the bottom of the barranca, and pursued it without hindrance other than that encountered in the rank tropical vegetation, until sunrise, when the termination of the chasm was reached, the ground having shown a gradual rise to the level above for a mile or more back. A dense forest now surrounded them on every side, from the interior of which were heard the screams of monkeys, gambolling among the tree-tops; everything else was still, and the light so obscured it was difficult to distinguish the trail which had evidently been long unused, and obliged them often to employ their machétes in clearing a passage through the vines and vigorous plants of a year's growth. After walking a mile, however, the wood became more open, and that they were approaching the neighborhood of one of the wild tribes was manifested by the junction of several well-worn paths branching out in various directions; our travellers chose the middle one, and had not proceeded far when the sounds of falling water and of voices simultaneously struck on their ears. A thicket intervened, stealing noiselessly up to which, they parted the branches, and saw a few yards off an old woman and girl, filling a couple of large callabashes from a spring; the path crossed this opening which was enclosed on all the other sides by a wall of shrubs and creepers, and drawing from their packs some gay ribbons, Eustace and Don Lucas quietly entered the glade. The girl, who was standing erect with the callabash poised on her shoulder, first caught sight of the strangers, and dashing the water down with a shriek, bounded towards the wood with the untamed grace of a deer; the *nah-attambil* (old woman) was equally alarmed at their appearance, but her retreat being less nimble, allowed Lucas time to adroitly catch her by throwing a double ribbon over her neck and retaining the ends.

"Why, what is the matter, *hach-nah?*" (mother) they said. "Are we *Ahuanchacob* (giants) or *u'nicob* (men)—look?"

Hearing herself spoken to in Maya, the withered hag ceased the hideous outcry she had raised, and stared at her captors with mouth agape; whereupon they hung a string of beads over each shoulder, and giving the ribbon another turn about her neck, released her from durance. She was highly pleased at this, and clutching her treasures mumbled something and set off after the *tchoupal* (child) at a round trot; her new friends were not to be got rid of, however, and Lucas catching up the calabash she had left followed close at her heels. She had not far to go, for the girl, it seemed, finding she was not pursued—true to the instinct of her sex, whether in petticoats or out of them—was retracing her steps to get a peep at *'h-omonob* (the strangers) when they met her. Now that her first terror was past, and she perceived the seemingly good understanding existing between all parties, a few beads and compliments in her language easily won her over, and by the time they had reached the open table-land, on which, in the midst of maize and tobacco stalks, were thirty or more huts, they were capital friends, and learned that all the men were gone to a *Napalhana* (great feast) at the next village. Quitting the crone, their younger guide led them into the town where they were speedily surrounded by a circle of women and children, who came running up from the more distant huts, but paused at a safe distance until the persuasions of their new ally overcame their fears; in pursuance of their scheme the strangers now opened their wicker packs, and soon provided themselves with abundance of provisions and tobacco leaves, if nothing else, in barter for finery. So far everything had gone smoothly and the comrades could not but congratulate themselves upon their success, while lying upon a *haazpoa* (palm leaf mat) under one of the sheds; but an unexpected change was at hand, for early in the afternoon Eustace was aroused by a rough shake, and starting up beheld on all sides the swarthy and by no means prepossessing faces of twenty or more savages. They all flourished wooden swords and spears, and certainly might have closed the sleepers' career if so inclined, before a pistol could have been drawn; a fancy which was busy in some of their brains, or their countenances very much belied them. Under any other circumstances, the surprised party, armed as they were, would have been a match for twice their number, but now keenly watched, they could only curse their recklessness and folly for the present inability to give battle if necessary; once Don Lucas slipped his hand into his breast to grasp a pistol, but a heavy blow on the arm and a few harsh words showed the intent was detected. After eyeing them awhile, with a scowl, the chief asked, in bad Spanish, what they did in his town, and who they were? To this—thinking by speaking in their own tongue a favorable impression might be made, and at all events all would understand—Eustace replied in Maya, "that they were traders wishing to get a cargo of *kutzè*, (tobacco) and narrated how they entered the village and passed the morning. No sooner, however, did they comprehend the latter part of the narrative, than quite a different effect was produced from that designed, and a tremendous uproar ensued; jealousy, the adventurers found to their cost, being a prominent foible in the characters of their ferocious friends. Fortunately for them the rush was so simultaneous and blind, several of those in front were thrown down, and both had time to leap to their feet before receiving any violent blows.

"Break through! make for the mountain!" cried Eustace, in English, shooting the chief, but the same instant himself prostrated. Don Lucas more lucky, succeeded in escaping, and flew along the kutzó patches as only a man can with certain death at his heels. Shoot! shoot! yelled the crowd in chase, to a lean savage in the lead, who held an arrow drawn to his eye ready to seize a chance as he ran; and down also tumbled the Spaniard, with the reed quivering in his ankle. At this success, the enemy set up a great shout, and the two prisoners were soon lying painfully bound and bloody from flesh wounds, in one of the close huts. Very little heart had they even for plotting an escape in their present helpless condition, and the heavy breathing of a slumbeing savage close to the door of their prison was audible in the stillness of the night. It was not easy to rest quietly under the circumstances, but the Spaniard contrived to lose all thought of the next day's probable horrors in sleep, his friend meanwhile keeping involuntary watch. The greater portion of the night has thus elapsed, when the attention of Eustace was attracted by a slight rustling in the thatch not far from the ground, and turning his face, with an effort in that direction, he distinguished an opening already made, which a hand of some one without each moment increased in diameter. Eustace was watching the progress of the work with breathless interest, when a figure crept half way in, and to his relief, the voice of the girl who had guided them to the village, softly asked, "*Vene-tech, kinicych?*" (dost thou sleep, Faireyes?)*

"Heaven forbid!" cried Eustace; when without delay, she produced a sharp stone and began sawing apart the bark cords with which he was bound; this was soon accomplished sufficiently to allow him to complete the work, and the same service was performed for Don Lucas now also awake. While this was doing, she related that all the warriors, except the one at the door, had gone into the forest to see if any enemy were approaching, as they suspected the prisoners to be the spies of some such party; they would probably be back by morning, and would then kill them and make *hànal* (a dinner) of their bodies. "*Ex chichelem,*" (but you are too handsome for that,) she added, with vivacity, stroking down the face of the Saxon with her oily fingers. Her new friends entertained a similar opinion, and crawling through the opening with fresh hope, rose to their feet on the outside. "*Kuce!* see! see!" exclaimed the girl at the moment, with a faint cry, and quick gesture towards the corner of the hut, around which the guard was stealing, spear in hand. As soon as he saw himself detected, he charged, with a wild whoop, but a pistol shot from Don Lucas brought him sprawling at their feet mortally wounded; the report was exchoed and re-echoed by the woods around; and before it had died away, with a few hurried words of thanks, the fugitives were making for the hills as fast as the darkness permitted, and their guide flying to reach her shed. The forest was not far off, and once within its borders they felt themselves safe for the time, and paused to listen; the town was in an uproar, the screams and cries of women and children arising from every part, but no shouting, which confirmed the girl's statement of the absence of the men. After taking breath the comrades felt their way along, through the pitchy darkness, but after an hour's struggling and creeping, in which they advanced not more than a hundred yards, agreed that it would be better to reserve their strength until it could be employed to more advantage, and await the dawn where they were; accordingly, they climbed into a tree near at hand, and sat, with ears open to the slightest alarm; everything was, however, again perfectly still, save that at intervals, a faint wailing arose from the direction of the village, indicating that the corpse had been found.

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* The grey eyes of the Saxon race, always objects of special note, furnishing a [illegible] among the unvarying black of the Indian or even half-caste Spanish [illegible] Tropical America.

At last a dim light penetrated the roof of branches, and sliding down, the adventurers forced a way through the dense undergrowth, and struck into a path, by good fortune not twenty yards distant; for fear of encountering any of the natives, however, as they were ignorant of the position of their settlements, they did not long continue in the trail, but ascending a hill less closely wooded than the plain, to their great joy found themselves at the very foot of the Sierra, which towered directly over head many thousand feet high. There was a narrow barranca in front, and descending into this they halted to examine their arms; their machètes were gone, but none of the pistols missing with the exception of the one with which Eustace had shot the chief, at the moment of being struck down—the haste of the natives to set out probably interfering with an immediate search of the prisoners. Those that had been discharged they reloaded, and glancing up at the rocky peaks, among which they hoped to find a gap affording access to the valley beyond, commenced their laborious ascent.

Scrambling up several steep acclivities they again fell into a path which wound upwards as far as could be seen along the side of the mountains, and this time they determined to follow it, as Don Lucas' foot had begun to swell and prove exceedingly painful, the wound being much irritated by the effort of climbing. The ascent was rapid and often abrupt, a few holes in the smooth rock serving as steps to scale a precipice, and from the summit of one of these last, their great elevation was shown by a partial view of three separate villages of the wild tribes on the table lands far below. All vegetation had now ceased, and on every side were enormous masses of gritty stone, piled one on the other in desolate grandeur, in the midst of which appeared yawning chasms, and rugged channels worn by torrents during the rainy season; the path was no longer distinguishable, but as they had traced it to the foot of the dry water-course up which they were toiling over loose pebbles, the climbers entertained no doubt of their being still in the route pursued by pedestrians in the habit of passing that way, whoever they were; and as it was a most unlikely thing that any one would climb to this height to descend *on the same side*, conjectured they could not be far from the gap they sought. Whenever they halted to rest, who and what the strange people were, among whom, it was probable, before night they would find themselves, furnished an absorbing topic of conversation, but neither looked to encounter any human beings for some hours at least. Meanwhile, as they clambered higher, the difficulty of advancing increased, and Eustace was debating whether it was not possible they had overlooked the true continuation of the path at first followed, when Don Lucas, who had turned the shoulder of a jutting rock in front, suddenly uttered a suppressed exclamation: the other was quickly at his side, and holding fast to a natural parapet over which they leaned with the caution requisite on the brink of a sheer precipice a thousand feet deep, beheld a scene not readily forgotten. The same narrow plain seen from the neighborhood of Chaxul, lay spread out before them, and numerous edifices, white and glistening in the sunshine, were discernable many leagues away. But their eyes had scarcely glanced over the distant objects, when they were caught and detained by the spectacle immediately beneath; the inner range of Sierra which, facing the chasm near

Chaxul, rises to so great a height as to cut off all but the remote view, in this place sank to less than a hundred feet in altitude, and was removed a mile or so from the base of the precipice, the intervening space being occupied by a valley elevated above the level of the plain beyond, and consequently nearer to them. As far as could be seen on each side the surface of this table was covered with stone houses, both large and small, pyramids, some quite isolated, and others, as one opposite, partly hewn out of the native rock and partly constructed of massive blocks; the hum of a dense population arose from beneath, and men, women and children were distinctly to be seen going from place to place, some with burdens on their backs, others laboring in the gardens, and others again basking in the sun, hot as it was, on the flat roofs of the houses or steps of the teocallis. Occasionally a figure of apparently gigantic proportions, or one cased in some glittering material, passed along, and the direction these invariably took towards the base of the steep, excited the curiosity of the gazers to discover the cause; stretching still farther over to accomplish this, they were startled to perceive, on a platform of rock some forty feet below, which intercepted a view of what was under, a group of warriors armed with spears, clubs and bows, and gaily adorned with feathers. The pair of adventurers had only time to observe thus much, when an outcry from the valley drew their gaze into that quarter again, and by the number of hands pointing aloft, shouts and running together, they perceived their presence was detected, and the more distant were endeavoring to direct the eyes of those closest to their position. They had barely taken the hint and withdrawn their heads, when a flight of arrows, from the occupants of the platform, swept the brink of the ledge, quivered high in air, and descending, rattled like a shower of hail on the rock behind; the whizzing of these missiles so close to their ears, was not the most agreeable sound, and as their reception seemed likely to be more stormy than had been anticipated, they thought it better to take up a more sheltered position. With this object in view, Don Lucas, followed by Eustace, crept along the parapet toward the right and entered a cleft between two walls of bare rock. As this was a bad place to be caught in, they pushed on with what speed they might until the pass became more open and shallow, when they saw the craigs surmounted on a sudden by a dozen armed men, some in armor of brass links, and others protected by wadded cuirasses of a brown stuff, which gave them the bulky appearance observed twice before. Several of these carried spears, which they balanced in act to throw, as they came leaping down from ledge to ledge, but the greater part shook hollow clubs violently overhead with a loud rattling noise. Don Lucas, whose Spanish blood was up, stood firm, pistol in hand, his dilated eye running from one to the other, undecided which to sacrifice where the claims of each were so equal, and deaf to the other's rapid and prudent expostulation, in an instant brought one of the attacking party tumbling and bloody down the steep. Eustace now drew his own pistols, resolved at all events to sell life dearly, a spear having prostrated his rash comrade, and two others wounding himself slightly in the left arm and leg; but at the instant found himself entangled in a net falling from above, the cord of which being dexterously drawn, he was thrown with stunning violence on the rocks, completely pinioned. His weapons were quickly removed, and bound securely, he was forced to climb after his captors in the best manner practicable, a thrust from the butt end of a spear serving to restore his equilibrium when in danger of falling backward. Don Lucas, who showed no sign of life, was dragged roughly along by the arms. The party crossed the opposite ridge, and immediately entered a chasm in the side of which a narrow flight of steps had been hewn, and from this spot the whole plain once more lay open to view; the steps were frequently exchanged for a steep zig-zag path, and this again would terminate in a precipitous stone ladder, so there was little monotony in the route. The last flight of steps was broad and massive, and communicated also with the terrace upon which the prisoners had gazed from above, and this, as well as the whole space immediately adjacent, was thronged by an excited populace, who regarded the former with ferocious countenances, while their escort forced a passage through their midst, crossing in front of their late elevated perch among the craigs.

ART. VII.—ANNEXATION OF CANADA.

THE ANNEXATION OF CANADA.—VIEWS OF VARIOUS CANADIAN, AMERICAN AND ENGLISH JOURNALS.—LITTEL'S LIVING AGE, ETC., ETC.

The subject of the annexation of Canada to the United States, is beginning to assume a shape of importance, if we may judge from the discussions which are now going on in the province, the mother country, and the northern section of this confederacy. Has the South no interest in the issue, that she seems to be asleep at her post? Whether she opposes, or is in favor of the annexation of Canada, should not the voice of her press be heard disseminating light and information upon the subject? Should we not at least inquire into the motives of the parties who favor this new annexation? The South certainly has an interest at stake as great as, possibly greater than Canada, the North, or Great Britain. Most assuredly, then, she should not wait until public opinion (even within her own borders) is moulded by the voice of a triply combined provincial, British, and northern press, whose interests may be antagonistic to her own. For ourself, it is not our intention in this article, to either favor or oppose the annexation of Canada. We are disposed, however, to contribute our little mite to awaken attention to the importance of the question now being agitated in other sections, in regard to this subject. It is the duty of a free people to be forever on the alert with regard to any important political act of the government under which they live. No act can be more important than the extension of territory.

Does Canada herself desire annexation, is a question which first presents itself to our minds. We believe, from the light before us, and from the tone of the press of both political parties in that province, that a large majority of her citizens, of whatever political creed, desire it as an object dearest to their hearts. There has long been a party among the French inhabitants of the province, called the Papineau party, who have all the while been friendly to the project of Canada's becoming one of the United States. Their zeal in the cause continues unabated; but, in addition to this class, there is another party among the French who favor the present government, and who are called the La Fontaine party, as being supporters of the prime minister, whose name they bear, who go for annexation. M. Duvernay, editor of the *Minerve* newspaper, which is the organ of the French party supporting the present government, has long been the confidential friend and faithful ally of the prime minister, La Fontaine. He has recently come out in a leading editorial, which bears the marks, as is asserted by the correspondent of the English paper, the Spectator, of "deliberate and careful preparation." The first thing which he does, is to taunt the Montreal Herald and the Canadian tories generally, for being advocates of annexation.—He seems to exult in the fact that the party formerly most friendly to Great Britain, and the bitterest enemies of the independence of Canada, have now wheeled right-about face, and are favoring more strenuously than the former friends of liberty, a disenthrallment from the British yoke.

After this, he goes on to say plainly, that he himself favors annexation, giving good and cogent reasons why he believes it would be the best thing for the province. He winds up by citing the letter which General Scott published some time ago, in which he declares himself in favor of annexation; says he believes it will be consummated with the consent of Great Britain, and asserts it beneficial to all parties.

The publication of Mr. Duvernay's editorial is regarded as a most pregnant fact in Canada, containing as it does, the principles avowed by him. His paper is considered the mouth-piece of four-fifths, at least, of the French population. In addition to this, his journal is, as already stated, the organ of the La Fontaine government and its adherents. The consequence is, that this fact gives M. Duvernay's views the appearance and importance of semi-official statements. All look upon the prime minister and his party as pledged to annexation.

The correspondent of the Spectator thinks that the La Fontaine party are annexationists, because they are compelled to be so by the tide of popular opinion. He says, "the tide has set in for annexation, and the La Fontaine party is unwilling to be left behind it." The truth is, there has been a remarkable change in parties in Canada within the last few years. During the revolution of 1837, one party bore the names of Rebels, and the other that of loyalists. Previous to that event, the British party held all the power in their own hands. The French were looked upon as a mean, inferior race, incapable of holding any office, or bearing any part in the government. Their British oppressors looked down upon them with contempt, and had done so from the time that Canada passed into the hands of England, with the surrender of Quebec. Instead of being considered a portion of the British government, they were looked down upon as vassals and slaves. The British inhabitants regarded them as a conquered, surrendered enemy, whom they were sent to watch over and guard. Then the fanaticism of a bigoted, ignorant religion came in to lend its acerbity to the feuds between the two factions. The French party regarded the British inhabitants as a set of heretics worthy of the guillotine and the stake, while the English looked upon the French as an ignorant, bigoted, priest-ridden faction, behind the spirit of the age, with its masses and its purgatories. The contest of Saxon and Celt was as bitter as it was in the days when William and his Norman followers set their conquering feet upon the shores of Albion. At length the fires which had long smouldered beneath the fear of the British lion, showed symptoms of breaking out into a blaze. The French party, long galled and chafed beneath the curb and spur of their British riders, came to the conclusion that confiscation, and death itself, were risks which might well be run in a cast of the die for liberty. The revolution of 1837 was the result.

In that contest the French were called the Rebels, and the English the Loyalists. It soon became apparent that the former party had calculated without its host, and the rebellion was soon put down. But it was not without its fruits for good to the French party. Upon the advice of the Earl of Durham and the Earl of Gosford, the Canadian viceroys, the English government showed itself sagacious enough to change its policy towards its rebellious colony. Easy at home, notwithstanding the oppressions towards a conquered people to whom leniency and protection were due, it forgot its obligations until taught that even the Frenchman has some rights which he will not quietly allow to be violated. The immense cost of suppressing the rebellion compared with the value of the colony, and the fear that oppression would drive Canada to the arms of the United States, wrung from her unwilling hands the dues and the rights which she would, under the circumstances, long have retained in clenched fists. The result was, that Upper and Lower Canada, hitherto distinct provinces, were united into one, under one legislature, in which the Frenchman, as well as the Englishman, exercised the right of representation. What followed showed the justice of the French cause, and the injustice of that of the British.

After the salutary measures adopted by the English government, in regard to Canadian politics, had gone into effect, the voice of rebellion was heard no more throughout the land. All that the Frenchman wanted was anything like a fair exercise of his rights. He got more than he wanted—certainly more than he expected. Grateful for the favor extended towards him, after he had fought for it, he became, from that time, satisfied and loyal, whereas heretofore he had been discontented and rebellious.

Just the reverse was the consequence with the Englishman. Accustomed to consider himself the superior of the Frenchman, he could not bear to see him elevated to the same position as himself—meeting him as an equal in the council hall and the legislative chamber—rendering his ballot a nullity by casting another in opposition to it. From being satisfied and loyal, he became discontented and tinged with disloyalty. While he was the oppressor, he was willing enough to see the foot of the tyrant upon the neck of Canada. Since he can no longer exercise the high prerogative of oppressing his fellow man, he becomes enraged with his government, across the waters, and threatens it with annexation—as if Uncle Sam would restore him his fallen sceptre any more than his father John Bull does. But no matter for that; the Englishman's desire of revenge will induce him to favor annexation, although he knows that he will not gain thereby the inestimable privilege of oppressing Frenchmen.

The French party has been gaining power and influence ever since the union of the two provinces, until it is now in the ascendency. The British party from that time has become more and more dissatisfied, until it is now almost entirely disloyal. The "rebellion-losses" bill, by which they imagine that the French rebels are too much favored, and their own importance too much underrated, has but served to increase their dissatisfaction. They very naturally ask themselves what they gained by being loyal, when they have lost their influence in favor of the French party; and when, after the lapse of ten or more years, their pockets are laid under contribution to reward the rebels for their acts of 1837. It is intolerable—and their cry is for annexation. Not that they have lost respect for a monarchical form of government, or are in love with republics, but because the British government has lowered their importance, and revenge dictates to them the course they are pursuing. We are sustained in these views by a passage in the letter of the Spectator's correspondent to whom we have already alluded, and whom the tenor of his letter shows to belong to the British party.

> "*Though I have hated*," says this correspondent, "*the thought of becoming an American Republican*, sure I am that this fate awaits us all in Canada; and I can only wonder at the ease and rapidity with which Canadians of all parties and classes are falling into the belief that annexation alone can set us to rights; that it will mend the fortune of every colonist; and that, instead of being an evil, it will prove a comfort and a blessing. Relief from pain is said to be the greatest pleasure; this is what the whole colony is longing for, and will, I believe, soon obtain by the only means now possible," [that is annexation.]

Horrible "fate" indeed! the "thought of becoming an American Republican!" Nevertheless, the British party will become so, if by this means they can be revenged for being deprived of what they consider their birth-right—bullying Frenchmen. This same correspondent, as a representative of the British party, is not willing to allow the French party sincerity in being annexationists, but contends that they are compelled to be so by popular opinion, in order not to be left behind. The French might retort, by asking him how long he and his party had been favorers of Canadian independence, just as the Minerva taunts the tory Herald for supporting annexation. Compelled by public opinion, indeed! and when the French are in the ascendancy and control popular opinion!

That the French party in Canada is in favor of annexation has been shown from the position of the Minerva. That the British party is in favor of it has also been shown. We will give a few extracts from some of the English and Canadian papers, to show the nature and spirit of the resistance by this party to the government across the waters, and their desire for annexation. The Spectator of May 26th, says,—

> "The news from Canada is very unsatisfactory; and the private accounts are still darker than the published. Lord Elgin steadily perseveres in his course, and the governor-general has succeeded in becoming the cocksby-general for the ultra "loyal" party. As the "rebellion-losses bill" comes to be regarded as an irrecoverable act, the question of "annexation" revives—with threats among some, with alarm among others; but still it is again talked of."

The Montreal Courier, a Tory paper, has not as yet, we believe, begun to favor openly and boldly the cause of annexation. Yet it has been publishing a series of very able papers, which indirectly favor a union with the United States. The writer endeavors to show that the Constitution of Great Britain has in reality approached nearer a practical working in the American Confederacy than in Canada. He has adopted the principle that "all power rests with, and emanates from the people." He then goes on to show how much superior the government of the United States is, to secure the interests of the people, to that of Canada. After noticing some objections, by Paley, to a Republican form of government, speaking of our political system, he thus proceeds:—

> "Nearly three-quarters of a century have since elapsed, and the "experiment" has become a great fact—a settled reality. The experience of each succeeding year is only realizing what Paley so clearly foreshadowed as the possible result of such a system—namely, *the highest security combined with the most ample liberty, as well as a capacity for extension.* From thirteen states, which originally constituted the confederacy, the number has already reached thirty. The Union, no doubt, might, with advantage to the whole, be increased to fifty or sixty. The larger the number, the less risk would the Federal Government incur from the "dissensions and jealousies referred to by Paley, as likely to arise amongst individual states."

Our writer next goes on to notice the leading provisions in the American Constitution—particularly those concerning its amendment, its guarantying republican forms of government to the states, and the powers of these states themselves over their own legislation, under the constitution. He then goes on to say:—

> "The Canadas, therefore, might be admitted as states, without any change, if the people so willed it, than the election of a governor. The power of appointing judges, and other officers, might, as at present, and as in the case of the federal, and many of the state governments, still continue in the executive. The elective franchise might also, as in South Carolina, and some other states, be based upon a property qualification, or upon the payment of a certain amount of taxes to the state. If these principles were adhered to, the transition would be attended with no great organic changes calculated to shock the feelings or unsettle the minds of men. The legislative assembly might, as at present, be elected for four, and the legislative council for six years; and to give the latter greater stability to resist popular influences of a dangerous nature, as well as to keep in it experienced men, a third of its members might retire every two years, by rotation, as in the case of the federal senate.
>
> "With such well defined privileges and powers guarantied to us, all the bugbears which the fertile imaginations of interested or bigoted politicians of all parties have conjured up about perpetual election and universal suffrage, would vanish into thin air.
>
> "As an immediate consequence of our admission into the Union would follow a settled state of public mind. All men would at once feel that we had taken our place amongst the nations—that we had, in fact, reached the full stature of manhood, where the energies rapidly develop themselves. The bitterness and virulence of internal dissensions would suddenly be forgotten with the return of prosperity. Our new position would soon foster into existence a national feeling and pride that would direct our energies as a people, and lead to the successful prosecution of numerous public enterprises, and particularly of railways, necessary to the full enjoyment of those advantages which nature and providence have so liberally bestowed upon our common country."

There has been a paper established in Montreal, whose special object is to favor annexation. Its prospectus first appeared in the Courier, from which the above extracts are taken. The Montreal Herald, another prominent Tory paper, holds this language in regard to annexation. After going on to enumerate the advantages of a union with America, it continues:—

> "Thus, whether rightly or wrongly, it is incontestable that the great majority of those among us who think independently, are looking forward to annexation as the relief from many of our political difficulties, and the high road to prosperity. Men who have differed most widely, and who perhaps will continue to differ on all other questions, even after annexation shall have taken place, agree at this moment in desiring annexation as the most advantageous movement that we can adopt. But while the feeling for annexation is strong, there is as strong a desire that nothing should be done by violence; and that if England will cast off her children, they may yet never be found in arms against her. Hence the importance of the question: "Will the British government oppose annexation?"

This important question we shall discuss presently. We will barely remark here that this and the foregoing extract are strange language for Tory papers, when compared with their former opinions. But the cause of the change in those opinions we have already pointed out.—A correspondent of the New-York Tribune, a Tory—the correspondent we mean, of course, and not the Tribune—writing from Kingston concerning the convention which agreed unanimously to adopt the federative Union of the British North American Provinces as one of the measures which it would recommend to the people of the province, [Upper Canada,] says:—

> "In truth, the great defect of the federative scheme lies in this, that whatever advantage it promises to afford, only suggests how much greater would be the same advantage if gained by annexation to the United States. No man can shut his eyes to that; while it would equally entail upon us the expenses of a federal government, which is the great economical objection to a union with you. The only thing we should save by federation, as compared to annexation, would be our British feelings. These are doubtless strong, but they grow weaker daily, when they are in direct opposition to our desire for the material prosperity of ourselves and our children."

The correspondent of the Spectator says, among many other things,—

> "*All* the English newspapers in Lower Canada are now, more or less, the advocates of annexation. In Upper Canada, annexation is the fashionable doctrine. Throughout the province, even amongst the very few who are now sincerely attached to the British connection, annexation to the United States is felt and admitted to be the only probable, and above all, the only effectual solution of our troubles and difficulties."

Why does Canada desire annexation? is the second question which presents itself to our minds. We have already shown one of the main reasons why the British party in that province desire it. It has seen that the French party has been put on an equal footing with itself, and, starting from the same point with itself, is already outstripping it in the race for political power and influence. To take revenge upon the government of Great Britain for such a policy as has brought about this state of things, it is willing to see Canada annexed to the United States. Perhaps it thinks it can frighten the mother country into an acquiescence of its wishes by making the threat of annexation.

We know that annexation of Canada to the United States would not give the British Canadians the same ascendancy over the French which they formerly possessed. But it would do this much. It would enable them to separate themselves entirely from a class so obnoxious to them, by their remaining in the State of Upper Canada, while the French would remain in Lower Canada, for there would be two states made of the Province in case of annexation. This might not entirely satisfy the British Canadians, but they would prefer separation as an American State, to being in a minority in a British Province, with the French in the ascendant. The design of the British party against the French is made evident by the following extract from the Spectator of August 25th.

> "The advices from the British dependencies are not hopeful for the permanence of tranquillity and concord. In Canada the British League has completed its session, and has sent home its manifesto, the sum of which is, that the "British" party in Canada regretfully hankers after commercial protection in the tariff of the English customs, and, to counteract the "factious" operations of the French Canadians, desires a confederation of the Provinces in British America."

This British League, spoken of above by the Spectator, is the same convention written about by the Kingston correspondent of the Tribune. Indeed, this correspondent himself says, after stating one object of the British League—

> "In addition to which they hope to put the French Canadians under their feet, and they, therefore, always connect the federation of the provinces with some new territorial division, which shall withdraw the island of Montreal and other parts of Lower Canada, where the British have a footing, from French influences, and unite them to Upper Canada, or part of Upper Canada, for the purpose of forming one state of the Federation."

The great desire of the British party seems to be to "counteract" the "factious" operations of the French Canadians—"to put them under their feet," and to "withdraw the Island of Montreal and other parts of Lower Canada where the British have a footing from French influence." To this end they have formed a British League against the poor French, and propose a Federation of all the British North American Provinces. Failing, this project, which they no doubt prefer, the men who lead in Canada—that is amongst the British party—would unite that province with our government—not, as we have already shown, because they love republicanism so much—for some of them "hate" the "fate" of becoming "American Republicans,"—but because they would do anything to get rid of "French influences."

We have shown the main reason why the British party desires annexation. It now remains for us to show the principal cause of the coincidence of French wishes with those of the opposite party. We have already spoken of the semi-officially expressed designs of the La Fontaine dynasty in regard to union with the American states. The correspondent of the Examiner leaves no doubt as to the opinions of that party. They earnestly desire annexation. And why is it that this party which has been so loyal since they have been allowed an equal share in the government, now so eager for Canada to become one of the United States? We believe their main object is to avoid the ulterior designs aimed at by their opponents against them. They know that so long as the other provinces will not join Upper Canada in its crusade against them, they can maintain their position and influence. But when they see Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the balance, joining their opponent in a British league, to counteract all their operations, to put them under their feet, and to wrest from them the island of Montreal, and despoil them of the other most valuable portions of their territory, they remember what they were previous to the revolution of '37, and begin to fear that the Celt will descend from his position as the equal of the Anglo-Saxon, and again become the slave of his haughty tyranny. Hence although perfectly satisfied with the present state of things, could they be guarantied a continuance of them—although very loyal so long as they can be allowed a participation in the affairs of state, they fear that a change disastrous to their interests will come unless something is done to ward it off In annexation they look for a security against the impending evils. Hence they agree with the British party in their cry for union with America, when the motives of the two factions are as diverse as the poles. The Englishman wishes to lord it over the Frenchman. The government across the Atlantic, made wise by the revolution of '37, will not allow him to do so. In a fit of rage with Victoria and her parliament, he endeavors to bully the privilege of being biggest out of them by threats of annexation. The Frenchman, very well satisfied with the Queen and supreme legislature, nevertheless fears that they may be induced to grant the Canadian Englishman his request, and, to prevent this, joins in with his opponent in the wish that Canada shall become a member of our confederacy.

In addition to this, we very readily believe, that the French party are, some of them at least, really anxious for the independence of their country. We would much sooner believe that they had become enamored of republicanism than that the British party had. They were the revolutionists of 1837, and although they were driven to be such by intolerable tyranny, and probably would never have rebelled had they been treated with justice, yet we can well imagine that upon comparing their own government with ours, they see that our system is better calculated to promote their permanent interests than their own. It would be doing them injustice to believe that the spirit of the age, which calls so loudly for republics, addressed a deaf ear when it spoke to them. Their sympathies are with the mother country, and when they see France desiring a democracy, although she may not be able to secure one, all their sympathies are aroused in favor of that form of government. When we remember too that they are remote from the central influence of thrones and monarchies, and in close approximation with the grand republic whose moral influence is next to omnipotent in favor of freedom, we must believe that they are, to some extent, convinced of the good (to them) of annexation, independent of the opposition to them of the British party.

Thus it is that the conflicting parties have each a peculiar and special object in favoring annexation. In addition to these there are other motives common to both. They are found in the commercial and other national advantages attendant upon being a member of the American

Union. These advantages are thus summed up by the Montreal Herald, the tory paper from which we have already quoted. Its indirect manner of supporting annexation has already been mentioned, It does not profess to advance the following views as its own; but, speaking of those who favor the annexation project, it proceeds :—

> "This measure, they say, would give the Americans the free use of our river, so that our wharves would be crowded with their craft; while it would, at the same time, afford our ship-owners reciprocal advantages in American waters, without the delay and conditions, and uncertainty of long-drawn-out diplomacy and nicely-balanced treaties, made on our side by negotiators from Great Britain, unacquainted with the geography of the country or the trade of the people.
>
> "This measure would give an interest in our undertakings to American capitalists, who may see and judge for themselves, at the end of a two days' voyage from the principal seats of monetary operations, and so release us from a weary attendance upon British speculators, ignorant of our resources and incredulous as to our good faith. It would increase the facilities and the objects of that trade with the far west, which is just opening; it would secure to us permanently all the good hoped from the reciprocity laws, which we have vainly attempted to obtain from the Congress at Washington; it would reconcile the conflicting notions of the free-traders and protectionists, since it would remove the barriers to our commerce with our neighbors, while it would afford to our manufacturers the benefit of a protective tariff. It would, in short, people our cities; convert our water-falls into motive powers; and equalize the price of land, now nearly 100 per cent. higher, in latitude 45 deg. 1 min., south, than in 45 deg. 1 min., north.

From various other sources besides the above, we learn that the desire of a protective tariff to her manufactures is one of the reasons why Canada wishes annexation. Even should she ever become incorporated into the American Union she will find her protective notions will meet with a sad reversal. The spirit of restriction and the spirit of republicanism are diametrically opposite. The building up of the latter must be at the expense of the razure to its foundation of the former. The sickly, temporary growth of "protection" (which was reared on the hot-bed of Federalism in America) is fast withering beneath the rising sun of enlightenment and equal rights. Canada need not expect that the protective policy which has been the builder of thrones upon the ruins of liberty in monarchical Europe will be cherished in our great republic for the benefit of her manufactures, should she be so fortunate as to be admitted into our confederacy. The Vandalic system of flinching from the pocket of the laborer his scanty wages to line with fatness the coffers of the nabobs of wealth is fast passing away, since the general diffusion of intelligence points out to the man of the sweaty brow, the wrong imposed upon him, and teaches him that he has the right inherited from high heaven to resist the oppression which grinds him in the dust.

It seems from what is before us that all parties in Canada, though for different motives, desire annexation. Now the next question is, do the United States desire it? The Northern portion of the American Union has generally heretofore opposed the acquisition of territory. The Southern portion has generally been the instrument of the extension of our flag, from the everglade in Florida to the gold placer of the Sacramento. The Northern and Southern wings of the two great national parties have not usually plumed their pinion in unison upon the subject of getting more land, either for or against. It is a question whether this will be the case with regard to Canada. Many of the Northern papers seem to be favorable to the annexation of the province just beyond the St. Lawrence. Especially is this the case with the New-York "Tribune" and "Courier and Enquirer," the two master-spirits of the Northern press. The New-York "Evening Post," which speaks as well the sentiments of the Free-soilers as any other paper, seems to be favorable to Canada's union with the United States. Why is it that a party, or that parties, so generally opposed to acquisitions of territory now seem to favor it?

There are several reasons for this. The Abolition party proper, is willing to do anything which will give them the ascendant in our national councils. There is a kind of giant mania gotten hold of them by the hand, which influences their walk wherever they go. Utterly regardless of every other consideration, they are going forth armed with the club of Hercules to crush that, (to them,) many-headed monster, yclept Slavery. If they are candidates for seats in the national Congress, they infuriate their constituents with double-distilled fanaticism, upon a subject of which they are as ignorant as they are of the cogitations of the man in the moon, and call upon them to break off the manacles of the negro who is, to all intents and purposes, a greater participant of the blessings of life than a majority of the people of the world who are of the same color, as those whom they address. Do they go to church on the Sabbath? They go up to worship with their hearts aching, and their faces gloomed, over the cruelty exercised towards the black man of the South, and call down the avenging wrath of heaven upon the heads of those who hold the scourge, when master and servant are at that time both worshipping the God of their fathers under the same roof. Do you tell them that the bible allows of slavery? Away with your bible, say they; and straightway they unfurl the black banner of atheism, and invite those who cannot get over the permission of the bible to hold slaves, in any other way, to rally around the standard of infidelity. Do you tell them that the constitution of the United States gives Congress no power over the subject of slavery? Their answer is, tear the great charter itself into shreds, light the torch of civil war, place the battle axe in the hand of rebellion, burn down the temple of our government, and murder woman and her infant in the bed of repose, turned into the bed of death. Do you still tell them that the black race of the South are not prepared for their liberty, and that they are in a very good condition and are happy? They show you pictures of the naked, manacled slave upon his knees, with the scourge raised above him, and the blood trickling down his back. They tell you of dungeon walls, handcuffs, chains, and all the infernal enginery of torture and the rack, and such other things as exist but in their own crazed imaginations. These, of course, will go for annexation, if for nothing else under heaven, but they may obtain an ascendancy in the halls of Congress. It matters not whether there is any probability of their profiting by this ascendancy or not. They must have the ascendancy, and have it they will, think they, if they have to move heaven and earth to attain it.

But in addition to the abolition party proper, there is a portion at least of the Northern Whig party and Democratic party, who are very bitter against the institution of slavery. The Tribune and Evening Post—one a Whig and the other a Democratic paper—are good representatives of this class. These do not claim for the Federal government any power over slavery in the States, but contend, in common with many others, that Congress can control the institution in the territories. The object dearest to their hearts, (perhaps after a restriction of commerce and a corruption bank,) is to prevent the extension of slavery. Although they know that they could not, even if they had a majority in Congress, pass a statute by which the direct abolition of slavery would take place, yet they hope that by obtaining such a majority, they may be enabled to restrict slavery to its present limits, and then pursue such a system of legislation as will force emancipation upon the States themselves. Possibly they wish to obtain such a majority as will enable them to so remodel the constitution as to prohibit slavery. Even if this is not the case, they hope to get into the ascendancy so that they may prohibit, or attempt to prohibit, the slave traffic between the States, and pass a law for immediate abolition in the District. These two projects are their darling favorites. If they can succeed in these attempts they will endeavor by protective tariffs, &c., to make valueless the labor of the slave, and compel his master to set him free. Then, too, the very love of the Northern States for restriction upon commerce will induce them to extend the right hand of fellowship to the Canadians, so clamorous for protection. Every additional free State, and protective tariff State will add to them several members in Congress ; and for this reason the Northern States whoes opposition was thundered against John Tyler and Mr. Polk, for acquiring Texas and the Mexican provinces which would increase, they said, the area of slavery, will now probably be found the warmest advocates for the annexation of Canada.

The inquiry now comes up, what will the South do in regard to annexation ? Her newspapers and her people have not yet spoken out upon the subject. If she sees that the North is bent upon the union of Canada with the States for abolition purposes, and for those alone, she will oppose the project to a man. Although she may know that her right to hold slaves is derived from her State sovereignty, and that she will resist by force of arms, if necessary, any encroachment upon her rights and immunities by an abolition majority, yet she will feel bound to do all she can to stave off the acquisition of such a majority by the annexation of free territory, or any other means. If, however, several new States be formed from the free territories already belonging to us, and admitted into the Union, and they and the North declare their intention to annex Canada for abolition purposes, and actually do unite her with our confederacy—even then the South will remain loyal to the Union until the majority transcends the constitution, either by assuming powers not granted them, or by changing the compact, so as to render it null and void. After this, party lines will be broken down at the South—the voice of dissension will be hushed within her borders, and any encroachment upon her rights will be met by the thunders of war, and thousands of swords will leap from their scabbards, gleaming fiercely upon the field of her honor.

Aside from slavery and protection, we believe that a majority of the American people would be in favor of the annexation of Canada. At the same time we doubt very much whether the parties which now probably favor this project in consideration of these two things, would support the measure were it not for the sake of these causes. It must be a source of pleasure to every American patriot, under ordinary circumstances, to see the flag of his country unfurling its ample folds over every state that will come under its protection, and securing to its inhabitants the blessings and advantages of a republican form of government. The greater the number of states united under our confederacy, the more prosperous probably will be the whole union, and the better will be secured the great national objects of prosperity in peace, and strength in war. Commerce, manufactures, the mechanic arts, &c., will flourish in proportion to the number of persons and the amount of capital and resources employed in them.

Canada is not destitute of resources for commerce and manufactures, nor of the elements which go to make up a prosperous state. In Upper Canada the inhabitants possess the advantages of a healthy and salubrious climate and a fertile soil. It yields an abundant and luxuriant crop of grain, such as wheat, indian corn, &c. Flax is also produced, and in the South-western districts, tobacco may be grown to advantage. To ship its productions, Upper Canada has the benefit of the St. Lawrence, and some other navigable streams, together with the great lakes, and the canals of Rideau and Welland. The first unites the Ottawa river with the Kingston, and the second extends from lake Erie to Ontario. They are both navigable for vessels of a hundred and twenty-five tons. Toronto and Kingston are both flourishing commercial towns, and have fine harbors continually whitened by the canvass of numerous water-craft engaged in trade. Although some portions of Lower Canada are rugged, cold and sterile, others are fertile, well watered, and more moderate in temperature, and produce the same articles of grain which the upper province does. Grain, flour, lumber, furs and pot and pearl ashes are the chief articles of export. Montreal is the commercial emporium of the two Canadas. It is the centre of the fur trade and commerce with the United States. Both provinces have fine manufacturing advantages.

We come now to the last important question which suggests itself. Will Great Britain give her consent to the annexation of Canada to our confederacy? We believe she will. To suppress the rebellion of 1837 it cost her a larger amount almost than her colonies are worth. She did not care so much about losing Canada as she was incensed that the Canadians should have had the audacity to rebel against her authority. She was peculiarly sensitive on the subject of colonial resistance, in view of the course of the "old thirteen." If she could have foreseen that Canada would have caused her the trouble she did in '37, she would have granted her independence, and said, joy go with her. Now made wise by past events, though it will be mortifying to England's pride to see Canada throwing off her yoke, yet in view of the advantages which will accrue to her from such a course, and especially in view of what it would cost her to prevent the loss of her province, she will allow it to escape her thraldom and become an American state. The Spectator, of 25th Aug., speaking of the independence of British Colonies, including Canada, holds this language:—

> "The idea of independence is becoming familiarized to colonists in various quarters; and several English statesmenactuated by indifference or the fatalism of official routine, studiously and avowedly contemplate the ultimate separation of the colonies."

Here is an extract from the same paper of 26th of May :—

> "It is true that a numerous party in this country would be ready to abandon all our colonies, and would be willing to begin with Canada. It is true that the papers which the writer of the letter quotes from leading papers in the Whig interest, indicate that the whig ministers correctly head that colonial abandonment party. But the country is not yet wholly possessed by the Manchester school; and however ministers may count upon a general neutrality at present, they would find, as soon as it really came to a question of "dismembering the empire," that theEnglish people are not in favor of a surrender to which our ministerial writers are endeavoring to reconcile the country."

The Montreal Herald, a tory paper, from which we have already quoted, after asking the question, will the British government oppose annexation, proceeds thus to speak of the advantages which would accrue to the mother country by a separation :—

> "Let due time be given for consideration; let the question be approached in the right spirit; and we believe she will not oppose it. The whole current of opinion among England's most influential statesmen, is evidently tending towards that point, when they will bid adieu to the colonies, with wishes for their prosperity, and hopes for continued friendship between the two countries—nominally separated—perhaps, to be still more closely allied by good offices and commercial intercourse. But it is not only on the opinions of her statesmen that we found our views of the course which Great Britain would take, if our independence were formally demanded. The whole course of our political and commercial relations with the mother country, must go to show that Canada is, virtually independent, and might be more flourishing herself, and therefore more profitable to Great Britain, if she were separated."

It seems that the only stumbling block in the way of those in England, who oppose annexation, is "dismembering the empire." They would not so much regret the loss of Canada, but there is something horrid in "dismembering the empire." They remember that the once powerful empires of the Spaniards and the Portuguese commenced to dwindle away with the loss of their colonies. They cannot see that the present insignificance of Spain and Portugal is attributable to other causes than the spoliation of their territories. They cannot see that other causes produced this result, and hastened the loss of the colonies. They mistake the effect for the cause, and, reasoning from analogy, tremble for the glory and power of the British Empire. Those who view things in a more philosophical light have no such gloomy forebodings—at least, on account of a loss to England of her western colonies. They believe, on the contrary, that a peaceful acknowledgment of the claims of the English western colonies to a place upon the list of nations, will redound to the benefit of the mother country, by allowing her to concentrate all her energies to another field of power and territorial aggrandizement.

From the earliest periods the wealth of India and the East, has offered a luring bait to the cupidity of European nations and conquerors. Philip of Macedon, after he had fastened his yoke upon the Grecian states, invited them to join him in the conquest of Persia, no doubt intending to push his victorious arms into the very heart of the East. He died by the hand of the assassin Pausanias, and his project was defeated. His mad son carried out the intentions of his father, and after adding Persia, Syria, Egypt, &c., to his dominions, the Macedonian lion crouched to spring upon India. His army worn down with fatigue and conquest, refused to follow him, and returning to the harlot city of Babylon, he whom the Brahmins call the *mighty murderer*, fell a victim to the omnipotence of the wine-cup. Had he only remained sober, and taken time to recruit his army, India might have been his. After the death of Cæsar, when the battle of Philippi made Mark Antony master of the destiny of Rome, to reward his troops who had given him this lofty position, he resolved to give to them the whole East for dismemberment and spoliation. But a more potent spell than ever that of Alexander's wine-cup, was thrown around him by the seduction of beauty, in the person of Cleopatra. Octavius, taking advantage of the fit of amatory intoxication brought upon his rival by Egypt's brilliant Queen, once more saved India from rapine and plunder. Thus did the wine-cup in one instance, and woman in the other, effect for the East what would have been vainly undertaken by the myriads of her dense population, and saved her from the two most potent efforts of ancient times, to despoil her of her wealth and freedom.

The effort of modern times to effect the same purpose, has been, and will be, more successful. John Bull, about the beginning of the 18th century, commenced a slower, but a surer plan of possessing himself of India than that pursued by either the Macedonian or the Roman. At that time, assuming the name of the British East India Company, he put on a mercantile coat, and was seen prowling about the banks of the Ganges, seeking admittance into India only for purposes of trade, as he then protested. The Indians slammed their door in his face, and then commenced on his part a petition, similar to that of the fox which we have heard of in a story intended for children, who wanted to get into the poultry yard. The fowls having an instinctive dread of foxes, refused him admittance. "Only," said he, "allow me to enter the tip of my nose." The fowls could see no mischief in this, and granted him the favor. Then came the request to admit only one foot, and this was granted for the same reason. Thus nose was admitted, then foot, then another, and another, until no part remained out but the tail. "Only allow me," said Reynard, finally, "to put in the tip of my tail." This was permitted by the silly fowls, and the cunning creature put in the tip of his tail, but not until his body had gone in before it. Then the fowls began to repent their folly, and reproached the fox with bad faith. His answer was that he had done no more than they allowed him to do.

As with the fox getting into the poultry yard, so has it been with John Bull in entering India. He only wanted at first to put in the tip of his nose, and by a kind of foxy diplomacy, has succeeded in getting in his whole body. India and the East must now be his, and he will not get drunk enough—pious John, with his missionary spirit, won't—to be like Alexander, defeated in his purpose. Neither will he, like Mark Antony, become the victim of beauty's seductions, and allow a pretty woman to turn him away from his hankering after Indian wealth. John is a dear lover of wine, and a great admirer of women, but conquest and colonization are far sweeter and fairer to him.

The East is the El Dorado of England's future hopes. Even her powers of ubiquity are not so unlimited as to enable her to hold both her Eastern and Western possessions. She will give up the latter that she may devote all her energies to the former, for two reasons. One is, that her East India possessions are worth more to her than her Western; and another is that her Western possessions are in the neighborhood of a republic whose example teaches them what they may do for themselves in the way of self-government, while the East Indians will not think of republicanism for a long while to come. In the East she has to deal with the Mongolian race, and in the West with the Saxon. She knows the difference between the two. England sees that, apart from attending properly to her East Indian possessions, the Russian autocrat demands continual watching at her hands. The position which she has recently assumed towards the Czar in his affair with the Sultan, does not lessen her responsibility in that quarter.

The following extract from the London correspondence of the National Intelligencer, shows one of the many things which England thinks she can do by turning all her energies to the East:—

> "A series of popular lectures on the cotton manufacture, is now delivering at the Whittington Club in London, by Mr. Warren of Manchester. In his first lecture, he stated that should the manufacturing population of his country, (England,) increase during the next ten years in the ratio in which it has during the last, it will become necessary, in order to support and employ them, to secure a permanent and cheap supply of cotton. This can be done by cultivating it in British India where, on the authority of Major General Briggs, Sir Charles Forbes and others, there can be produced a supply sufficient to meet the wants of the entire world, equal in quality to the article supplied from New Orleans, and cheaper than it by one half. He states the wages of the American slave laborer to be equal to about one shilling and a sixpence (33½ cts.) per day, whilst that of the Hindoo is only about two pence (4 cts.) The advantages to be derived from such a course, he stated to be the certainty of a good and adequate supply at a cheap rate, the consolidation of our Indian possessions by means of commerce, and the emancipation of American slaves by rendering their labor profitless to their owners."

At the same time that England promotes her own interest, by giving up her Western possessions, so that she may colonize more extensively in the East—so that she may raise cotton in India and thereby free our slaves, she will be the more reconciled to giving up Canada to our confederacy, so that the free States may have a majority in Congress. The abolition of slavery in the Southern States, is a great hobby with John Bull. John loves liberty. His bowels of mercy yearn with compassion over the hardships of our negroes, and the benevolent old soul in order to shatter the bonds of the Ethiopian, will enslave the less-pitied race of Mongolians, and as value received will give them the enormous per diem salary of four cents as payment for cheap cotton! Besides this, the hope that free soil will have the majority in the American Senate, will reconcile the old gentleman to the loss of his Canadian province! Ah, John, John, thou art a paradox!

Canada desires annexation. The British party desires it because any thing is preferable to them to being in the minority, with such a party in the majority as the French party. The latter party desires it because they fear a return of the time when they will be denied all share in the government, and return to their state of vassalage. They are, too, more favorable to republicanism than their opponents. In addition to these reasons, both parties see the immense advantage of independence, and a guaranty of that independence by the strong arm of the American confederacy will induce them to go for annexation. England will not oppose it, because it would cost her so much to put down a revolution—because her commercial advantages will be increased by Canadian independence—because it will add to the number of free states in the American Union—because she is too busy with the annexation of Cashmere, and with taking care of the already annexed Scinde and land of the Sikhs. The Northern states of this Union will probably favor it because it will be acquiring free territory.

If we of the South believe that Free Soilism desires the annexation of Canada for abolition purposes we shall " oppose it to the bitter end," now and forever; and in doing so we shall not be opposing the acquisition of territory, but shall be combatting the spirit of fanaticism which seeks to trample us, our equal rights, and our institutions, under foot. If, on the other hand, we of the South can believe, that the North desire, the annexation of Canada only as an amplitude of our grand and glorious republic, without reference to the question of slavery, we shall open our arms for the reception of a sister who has cast off the rags of monarchy, and comes to our bosom clad in the heavenly livery of republicanism. We need not be told that we are weak. This was the song which was sung by the myrmidons of high-handed oppression when the thunders of eloquence burst from the lips of a Patrick Henry, and taught his countrymen they were not weak. You are weak; this was the insult which was cast in the teeth of the blind giant Sampson, shorn of his locks, wherein lay his power. But as Sampson laid hold upon the pillars of the temple, and buried 'neath its falling roof and crashing walls, his proud insulters, so will we, if we are continually taunted with our weakness, lay hold upon the pillars of a temple more magnificent than that of the Philistines, and bury in one grand ruin the oppressor along with the oppressed.

ART. VI.—CURRENCY AND BANKS.

ACCUMULATION OF SPECIE IN NEW-YORK AND NEW ORLEANS—EXCHANGE PRO FORMA OF UNITED STATES COIN—EXPORT OF GOLD—PAR OF EXCHANGE—RELATIVE VALUE OF GOLD AND SILVER—RISE IN SILVER—VALUE OF THE £—INTERNAL EXCHANGES—REGULATION.

The exchanges being in favor of New York from all quarters, as well South and West as from abroad, the supply of the precious metals increases rapidly. The amount of specie received at the United States mints, is now about $24,000,000, and the importations for four months, were as follows, at the port of New York :—

	JAN.	FEB.	MARCH	APRIL.	TOTAL.
Import—	433,882	581,362	907,634	1,095,478	3,018,356
Export—	90,161	278,786	172,087	290,407	831,441
	343,721	302,576	735,547	805,071	2,186,915

This considerable excess of import added to the California receipts, was aided by nearly $500,000 of silver, which arrived from Ohio, New Orleans, and elsewhere. By these means the specie in the New York banks has swollen to a high figure, notwithstanding the Custom house demands. The amount of specie in that city has varied as follows:—

SPECIE IN NEW YORK.

	SEP. 22,	JAN. 1850,	MARCH. 26,	MAY 15,	AUGUST 20.
In Bank,	8,022,246	7,169,016	6,861,601	8,828,000	9,250,000
" Treasury,	3,600,006	3,550,000	4,365,000	4,711,767	5,787,842
	11,622,252	10,719,016	11,226,601	13,539,767	15,037,842

The increase from the close of March was important. At N. Orleans in the same period, there was a diminution from $8,350,283, March 31, to 7,903,306, April 27th, under the influence of exchanges in favor of N York. Silver under the foreign demand, continues to flow northward and westward in considerable amounts, but the specie held by the northern banks consists almost exclusively of American gold, and this cannot be shipped to London under 11 1-8 per cent. In proof of this, we append the *pro forma* of an actual shipment:—

AMERICAN GOLD FROM NEW YORK TO LONDON.

10,000 eagles cost . . .		$100,000
Insurance, $101,000 at ½ per cent.	505.00	
Policy Kegs packages and charges	5.50	510.56
Cost in New York		$100,510,50

Proceeds 2 kegs containing 10,000 Eagles, melted into
30 bars, weighing 447 lb. 7 oz. 16 dwt. 0 grains, reported worse 1⅝ grains.
Equal to 439 " 4 " 12 " 3 " standard.

Or 5272 oz. 12 dwt. 3 grs., at 77s. 9d.		£20,497 5 1
Allowed by melters for adherence to crucibles,		2 18 3
		£20,500 3 4
Charges at Liverpool, Freight ⅜,	£78 2 6	
Landing,	1 10 0	
Carriage to London and France, 3s. per £100,	30 15 0	
Portage and car-hire, . . .	8 0	
Cartage to and from melters, . .	1 0 0	
Melting, ...	11 4 0	
Assaying, ...	7 10 6	130 10 0
		20,369 13 4
Add Interest on Bills, say 50 days at 3 per ct.		84 17 6
		20,454 10 10
Less commission on bills ½ per ct. on £20,352 15 7,		101 15 3
Cash in London, ...		£20,352 15 7

Which amount drawn at 60 days' sight, to produce $100,510 50, equals an exchange of 111⅛.

The same operation on Mexican dollars to Paris or London, results in a rate of 9.46 on the latter, and 5.21 1-4 on the former place; as gold is likely to become a staple export from this country, and its changing value will call for a readjustment of the "standard," we have thought proper to enter into some examination of the subject here, as matter that must speedily affect the importing interest.

Most countries, it is known, use the precious metals as currency, but the United States alone make both metals and the coins of all nations a legal tender. In Europe, almost all the nations have silver alone as a legal currency. England, on the other hand, has gold alone, with silver to the amount of 40s. only. The United States make both metals. Now it is obvious that to ascertain what a par of exchange is, it is requisite to know what the standard coin of one country is worth in another at the time. But the value of both metals is always changing in relation to each other. When the mines of America were discovered, gold was worth 1 to 10 of silver; that is, one ounce of gold was worth 10 of silver. The new supplies of the latter metal diminished its relative value, until at the close of the last century, one ounce of gold was worth 15 of silver. Now, in coining, all countries vary the legal relative value of silver. In the United States it was 15 to 1; in England, 14½ to 1; in Hamburg, 15 to 1; in Paris, 13½ to 1; In Madrid, 16 to 1. Now it will be observed that the state of the markets of exchange effects the value of these metals relatively; a demand for gold will raise its relative value, and for silver likewise. During a part of the 18th century Spanish pillar dollars circulated in these then colonies, and in London they were worth 4s. 6d. each; that is to say, $4 44 4 were a £ sterling. Since that time silver has fallen in value until it came to be worth 4s. 10d. per oz., or 4s. 2d. each, making the sovereign $4 87½; but this changing value was not expressed in dollars and cents per £, but in per cent., and this erroneous expression has perpetuated the error.

Since the commencement of the present century, both the standards of England and the United States have undergone a change. In 1816, a complete new coinage took place in England, by which the value of coin was advanced 6½ per cent.; that is to say, before that time, one lb. Troy of standard gold, 22 carats, was coined into 44½ guineas; after that, into 46 29-40 sovereigns. From a Troy lb. of silver, 62 shillings had been coined, and afterwards 66 shillings. This latter was higher than the market price of silver, and designed to keep those coins in the country; of course this change affected the relative value to United States coins, and the gold par between the countries has changed three times. Thus under the laws of 1790, the eagle of $10 contained 247.5 grains pure gold, or 270 grains standard, and the English guinea at that time 118.65 grains pure gold, or 128 grains standard, and was worth as compared to the eagle $4 76. In 1792, a law of Congress ordered the custom house to value the English coins at 100 cts. for every 27 grains actual weight, which was valuing the guinea at $4 74. When the English coinage was changed in 1816, the sovereign contained 113.11 grains, and the eagle remaining the same, the par was $4 56 for gold; consequently, very little gold came here, and nearly all the coinage was of silver. It also happened that the relative value of gold to silver from 15 to 1 had declined to 16 to 1, which aided the change in the British coins in sending the gold from this country. A change became necessary, and in 1834, the gold bill did for our currency what had been done for that of England by Act of Parliament in 1816; that is to say, the pure gold in the eagle was reduced from 247.5 grains to 232 grains, at which rate the par of gold between here and England was raised to $4 87.5. These changes are seen in the following table:—

UNITED STATES AND BRITISH COINS.

	EAGLE.		SOVEREIGN.		
	Weight grs.	Pure gold.	Weight.	Pure gold.	Relative price.
1792,	270	247.5	128	118.65	$4 76
1816,	270	247.5	123	113.11	$4 56
1834,	258	232.0	123	113.11	$4 87
1837,	258	232 2	123	113.11	$4 86

In the United States, the silver remaining the same, the taking of 15 grs. of gold out of the $10 gold piece raised the relative value of silver to 16 to 1, and this seems to have been about the true gauge hitherto. Now it will be observed that London is the great market for silver, whence Europe supplies itself. It is there not money but merchandize; when there is a demand for it on the continent it rises in price, and of course like any other merchandise, it is sent to the place where it sells best. As an instance, in 1829, dollars sold in London 4s. 9d. per oz.; $1000 weigh 866 oz.; at the same time dollars were at par in New-York. The French Revolution of 1830, caused a demand for the Continent, and dollars rose in London to 4s. 11½d., and to 2½ per ct. premium in New-York, just as cotton or any other article rises here when there is a demand for it. Now suppose a merchant owes in London £1000, and the currency here being in dollars he is to remit them in payment. Dollars are not money in London, and he looks at the last quotation, and finds new dollars sell 4s. 10d. per ounce, as $1000 weigh 866 oz. they are then worth 4s. 2d., or 50d. each, consequently to pay £1000 requires $4800, and to send them there according to the proforma of an actual shipment will cost $200 more, say $5000. Instead of doing this he buys a bill of exchange, for which the account will run thus:—

A to B.	Dr.	
	For bill due on London, £1000,	$4,444 44
	Advance 9 per cent, - -	399 99
		4,844 33
	Brokerage ¼ per cent., - -	12 11
		$4.856 44

Now this bill at 9 per ct. premium has cost him $143 56 less than the expense of sending dollars or *less* than *par*, notwithstanding the absurd manner of making out the bill. Again, say a stock bond for $1000 is sold in London at what is called par at the rate $4 44 per £, the payment is £225 for which $1078 may be bought in the market, which is £4 84 per £. If the 225 sovereigns are brought home they are worth about the same here. The movement of the metals never takes place, either way, however, until the variation of the exchange will cover the cost. Thus sovereigns cannot be sent from London to the United States when exchange is over 5½ premium, and cannot go back when it is less than 10¼, being a range of nearly 5 per cent; and American gold cannot go under 11⅛. It is now probable, that from the supply of gold instead of silver continuing to fall, it will rise in value and perhaps get back to the old par of $4 44. Many of the countries of Europe, as Holland for instance, are abandoning gold as a standard, in this view, and it may become expedient for the United States to abandon silver for large amounts and adhere only to gold.

Among the most remarkable mutations which change of circumstances has wrought in public opinion, is doubtless that which was formerly entertained in relation to the "regulating powers" of a national bank, and the necessity of such an institution to maintain anything like an equilibrium in the rates for exchanges, external and internal. A race of merchants had grown up familiar only with the paper money system of the country, emanating from local banks in all sections, and so thoroughly had this paper money become identified with business operations that it was with the greatest difficulty and the occurrence of most serious revulsions that the difference between exchange and the discount upon paper money was at last made apparent. So long as no money was known to command other than the promises of banks, and those promises were like other merchantable articles dependant for their relative value upon the quantity issued, it was of course evident that some means of checking an undue issue in any one quarter should exist. This was afforded by the National Bank, which through its branches was always a creditor institution. That is to say, the collections and mercantile notes due at any centre of commerce, as Richmond, Charleston, Cincinnati, &c., were sent to those points payable at the branch, and as the money in which payment was made consisted of the bills of the local banks. These accumulated in the branch and were by it returned upon the issuing bank for specie or exchange. It is obvious that no bank could issue unduly without having its bills promptly returned. By those means, however, the remittances from most sections were nearly all made by the branches to the common centre of commerce, New-York, and the National Bank enjoyed a monopoly of exchange which would enable her to put the rates up or down at her pleasure. The facility of collecting through this system of the universal currency which the bills of all the branches enjoyed, was felt to be an advantage so great by the mercantile community, who had never known any other manner of exchanges, that the destruction of it was regarded with dread and dismay.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1. MELSENS' IMPROVED PROCESS OF MAKING SUGAR.

We understand that this method will be extensively used the ensuing season, and as it is a subject of vital importance to many of our subscribers, we have taken some pains to ascertain the practical utility which is likely to accrue from the use of the bisulphite of lime; and from the respectability of the parties from whom our information is derived, we have every reliance that, in practice, our observations will be found correct.

From the careful trials made during the close of the last grinding season, by Mr. Thos. A. Morgan, and several other planters of experience, who took the precaution of procuring pure bisulphite, it appears that the utmost confidence can be placed in the statements of Professor Melsens in his treatise. This treatise our readers will remember to have seen in our columns, in both languages. We mention this because the truth of his assertion, that by his process, if carried out to its full extent, the whole of the saccharine matter contained in the cane can be converted into crystallizable sugar, has been called in question. And we are happy to find, from some of these very experiments, conducted with attention, in following out the instructions in the treatise, that a very superior crystallized sugar was the result of the operation, without any residuum of molasses. Nevertheless, we are quite of opinion that, with the present sugar apparatus, it will not pay to carry the process beyond two crystallizations, with a residuum of sugar-house molasses. This will give a large gain in quantity as well as quality over the present ordinary lime process.

One important advantage connected with Melsens' process is, that it adapts itself at once to every form of mechanical apparatus in use in this State.

The first business of the planter should be to procure a PURE bisulphite of uniform strength, without which all the rest is of no avail; and we are gratified to find that the agent for the patentee has provided for this by erecting a powerful apparatus for the manufacture of the article here on a large scale, to ensure permanency and economy. It is the intention also to sell the bisulphite at a lower price than it can be had for any where else in the United States.

In badly-made bisulphite the principal impurities are hyposulphurous acid and free sulphur, both highly deleterious to sugar, and both of which impart to it a disagreeable flavor. The pure bisulphite communicates no flavor or smell, unless used in excessive quantities. The planter therefore should be cautious in purchasing only from responsible parties. Trash of all kinds has been sent from the North, and it is not unlikely that some of it may find its way here.

Bisulphite of lime, when crystallized, or even concentrated, loses nearly its whole efficacy from the escape of the excess of sulphurous acid upon which its action in making good sugar mainly depends. Some of our principal chemists at the North tested this thoroughly last spring, knowing that it would be impossible to send it in a fluid state, and compete with the price it could be made for here. Bisulphite, when of good quality, should be perfectly limpid, and mark at least ten degrees on Beaume's ærometer. Such an article, with ordinary skill, will produce a beautiful sugar, both as to color and grain; and if a good process of decantation be adopted, the result will give a still greater improvement than without it. The commonest kettle-process will perhaps derive most benefit from Melsens'; but none should stop there, because the addition of clarifiers, and the means of one decantation at 24 to 25 degrees Beaume, will give results that will largely remunerate for the cost of such additions.

From past experience it would appear that the quantity of bisulphite used has been too great. To combine economy with effect we should recommend from 1½ to 2½ gallons as sufficient to heat juice enough to make a hogshead of sugar, according to the quality of the cane. The cost of a gallon of bisulphite will be not over 25 cents, and it must be applied to the juice as soon as possible after it is expressed.

This done, the juice will be in a condition impervious to change, for the bisulphite prevents the formation of all ferments; and then, even in the common kettles, provided they be set so that the *grand* can be brought to the boil during clarification, the benefit of the bisulphite of lime as a defecator will be at once apparent. Of course the process will be still more effective when the clarification is performed by steam, and especially if the juice be afterwards left to repose in suitable receivers for about twelve hours, to deposit the whole of the defecated matter, and nothing but bright, clear liquor used for evaporation. To the planter on Red River the Melsens process must be peculiarly valuable, for by it the juice of green cane can be granulated, and all the disadvantages be obviated that attended premature grinding in that quarter. And in Texas also, the planter, from being enabled to re-boil his molasses into sugar, will have a marketable article for home use of all he produces. Another great benefit will be found in the crystallization of the sugar. From the size of the grain there will be *no difficulty* in using the syruping process, even with sugar made in the ordinary kettles; and we really think planters will find it to their interest to pay attention to this, as we are satisfied that by the use of *good* bisulphite of lime in the proper quantity, a good clarification, with two decantations, one after the clarification and the other previous to the syrup being put into the battery, and this followed by the process of syruping in oppropriate vessels, the sugar-maker will obtain, *at a small cost*, a sugar superior in grain, and little, if any, inferior in brilliancy of color to the best now made in the vacuum-pan by the aid of bone black; and in quantity, 20 per cent. at least more than what is now obtained by the common kettle-process. This will be fully tested, we understand, during the coming season, at Mr. Jno. Hagan, jr.'s, plantation, near Bayou Goule.

We will conclude by remarking, that inasmuch as the agent of Melsens, in his advertisement, offers to supply each planter with a barrel of bisulphite at a cheap rate, with permission to test the merit of the improvement, we strenuously advise all parties interested in sugar-planting to adopt the suggestion and give the new process a fair and proper trial; the cost is little or nothing—say $10,50 for a barrel—and the benefit, if the process possess one-half the merit attributed to it, enormous. Those who tried it in Louisiana last winter estimated the improvement as worth in quality and increased product $10 to $15 a hogshead, according to the apparatus used.

N. O. Bee.

2. NEW SUGAR PROCESS IN ENGLAND.

MARK-LANE EXPRESS, London, June 10, 1858.

SUGAR.—Several samples of sugar, of a very superior quality as respects granular texture and brightness of color, have recently attracted considerable attention in the Bristol sugar market, which has led to much inquiry as to the process of manufacture among the merchants and proprietors of West India estates. It appears, from inquiries we have made, that by a combination of several patents—among others, the cleansing and drying of sugar by centrifugal force—sugar which formerly took three or four weeks to refine, is now done in as many minutes. Sugars heretofore unsaleable in the English market are, by the new process, converted as if by magic into an article realizing 36s. ($8,64) per cwt. The machine by which the process is carried on is very cheap, portable, and easily worked, and the raw produce shipped in a state which prevents the waste of some 12 or 15 per cent. in shape of leakage from molasses. Next to the discovery of the vacuum-pan, the improvement of Messrs. Fingal & Son, of Bristol, ranks first in the scale of importance; and they have happily succeeded in combining the interests of various patents held by Messrs. Seyrig, Hardman, Rotch and others.—*Plough, Loom and Anvil.*

3. SUGAR-MAKING.—THE HIGHLANDS.

The question, "Are the highlands adapted to the growth and culture of the cane?" has been answered. It is no longer an experiment. Instead of going to the lowlands to open a plantation, the former are now selected, as combining several very important advantages; security from overflow, without the expense of building levees, is the first and most obvious. The cane does not grow so large as on the coast, but makes equally as good sugar; the juice requires less boiling, and a less quantity is required to make the same quantity of sugar; so that, all things considered, the balance is in favor of the highlands. The last two years have brought a vast quantity of this land into cultivation—more, perhaps, than for any previous ten years. In this section the sugar-mill is rapidly taking the place of the cotton-gin—the unoccupied lands are coming into cultivation—and even the worn-out and abandoned cotton-fields are found well adapted to the raising of this crop.

We are informed that there are now being erected, in this immediate vicinity, no less than fifteen sugar-mills, at probably an average cost of $10,000 each. This will bring into cultivation not less than 5000 acres of land; throwing into market 140,000 hogsheads of sugar, which will find its natural transit through Baton Rouge, contributing to her prosperity, and proving that she possesses the most substantial element of a great city: a rich back country.

4. PROSPECT FOR COTTON GROWERS.

The Hon. William Elliott, of South Carolina, in a late address before the Agricultural Society of that State, has put forward some views in regard to the Cotton interest of the South, which are deserving of the widest attention. This gentleman, in addition to being an experienced and successful planter, combines the merit of a liberal understanding of the principles of political economy. He says to the Cotton growers:

"I beg you to observe, that as the proprietors of the greatest and most productive cotton region in the world, we can produce in excess, *or forbear to do so;* and in this way have our destinies, for good or evil, measurably in our own hands. Is it not strange that there are some who question the fact of over-production, or its influence in depressing prices? Even so; there are planters even, who decide in this against their own interests, and against the abundant and conclusive proofs that may be adduced in support of these positions. Instead of bewildering ourselves with elaborate statistics—skilfully put together by those whose policy it is to encourage us to produce in excess, by persuading us that the consumption is always equal to the supply—let us confine our attention to a period of time which is recent, of which the facts are distinctly within our reach, and where there is consequently the less chance of error and mystification. Take the three last years, for example, and what are the facts? In 1847 we had a moderate crop of some 2,400,000 bales, and a moderate price to match it: eight cents, or thereabouts, was the rate for short cottons. We went on increasing the culture beyond the corresponding means of manufacture, and in 1848 produced the unprecedented crop of 2,728,000 bales. Before this great production was known, as soon as it was suspected, the price fell beyond all precedent, so that good cottons sold in our interior towns at 4½ cents the pound: nor did the price rally, or reach a remunerating point, until the spring of 1849, when it *was known that the growing crop would be short.* In that year we had an inclement spring; hundreds of thousands of acres of growing cotton were nipped or destroyed by the frosts and snow of April: alarm was felt for the sufficiency of the supply, and the price began to lift. Then came the army-worm and the cholera, the tempest and the inundation; and with every cause which threatened the adequacy of the supply came increase of demand and price, till the staple reached its present profitable point, at which—could it be maintained—our prosperity would be established and secured. We perceive, then, referring to the last three years, and to the facts and indications which they offer us, that the prices of cotton have fallen as the supply has increased; and risen as the supply has fallen short.

"I fear that we are not warranted in ascribing to our own forecast, the improved condition in which we now find ourselves. If the excess of production has been reduced, and our profits have thereby been sensibly enhanced, it is because Providence has cared for us better than we have cared for ourselves. True, we have diverted a portion of our labor and capital from the production of cotton. True, there are some of us, who, observant of events, have taken counsel from their understanding, and have applied themselves to the production of turpentine and rosin, of sugar and rice, and have even invested their money in machinery, and in the manufacture of cotton, instead of stimulating the already redundant growth—still it must be confessed that we continued to cultivate an extent of country sufficient to have yielded, with ordinary seasons, a crop of 2,500,000 bales. Had the crop approached that figure, should we ever had seen short cottons reach 13 and 14 cents? I apprehend not I think it is evident, from the facts already stated, that a high price for a short supply, and a low price for a large supply, follows naturally, in the relation of effect to its cause. Where, then, does interest, duty, patriotism, lead us? Why, unquestionably *not* to such an excessive production, as will surfeit, and nauseate our customers, but to such a moderate production as will sustain a remunerating price, and thus perpetuate our prosperity."

ADVICE TO THE PLANTERS.

"If I have succeeded in establishing my positions, it will follow, gentlemen, that there is a clear line of policy laid down for us, from which we cannot depart without disappointment and loss. It devolves on us in particular, to divert from cotton to rice, as much of our labor and capital as the lands we may own, adapted to such change, will admit of. To others, a still wider range is permitted, in the transferring of labor to the production of tobacco, or sugar, or turpentine. To all of us, it is expedient to divert capital, by every available mode, from the superabundant production of cotton to other pursuits. This is the interest of us all; the only certain and effectual mode by which we can prevent our relapsing into that deplorable condition from which we have so recently, and unexpectedly escaped. For if we all act on the deceptive supposition that the present prices will continue, when a full crop has been thrown on the market, and the apprehensions of scarcity shall thus have been quieted—if we aid in producing this result, by stretching to its utmost limit the capacity of our lands for the production of cotton—the prosperity that now gladdens the South will be short-lived, and we shall again be painfully familiar with glutted markets, forced sales, unremunerating prices, and all the other evils that wait upon excess. It may be said that what *we* do, is of little moment: that our contribution is too insignificant to be felt in the general result, on so extensive a field. This reasoning will not do; it is by reasoning thus that the very mischief is produced. It is by contributions of single drops that the Mississippi rolls her thousand miles of current to the Gulf, beats back the opposing wave, and quells the saltness of the sea, by the volume of her descending waters. Let us do our part in the confidence that others, equally interested with ourselves, will, when they see their way as clearly, equally do theirs."

INFLUENCES OF SHORT CROP AND OUR MONOPOLY.

"I wish that what I have elsewhere said, exposing the suicidal policy heretofore pursued by the cotton growers, could reach the ear, and touch the understanding of every planter throughout the wide South, who is interested in that staple. It is undeniable—it is a familiar and unquestionable truth—that two millions of bales of cotton, at the present prices, will yield to the cultivators many millions of dollars more than the 2,728,000 bales of 1848, *at the prices of* 1848. It is evident, therefore, that the supply beyond the 2,000,000 is to the planter superfluous; nay, worse, for it has served to diminish or destroy the value of the 2,000,000 bales, while the labor thus destructively applied, might, if turned into some other channel, have been productive and remunerating. By this excess, then, you lose the natural commercial value of a moderate and sufficient crop, and the further contingent value which your labor, unless thus misdirected, might have produced. In speaking to intelligent and practical men like yourselves, I address myself, as you perceive, to your understandings; these satisfied, no further powers of persuasion will be needed. Yet there are some who would induce you (I am sure without satisfying your understanding) to continue this ruinous course of over-production. They tell you, that if you do not monopolise the cotton trade it will be wrested from you. Interlopers will step in and eject you. This is the argument of those who neither know our country, nor understand our character, nor appreciate our energy; an argument addressed to our presumed ignorance, or to our fears, by those who would induce us to push a production, *for their profit*, beyond the point at which it would be profitable to us. Why it requires but a glance to detect its fallacy, and to convince us that with our climate, so admirably suited to the cotton plant; our soil, the richest, freshet, best adapted to the culture; our labor, the cheapest, the most reliable, the most manageable,—*we defy competition, much less ejectment!* and will command the cotton trade in spite of England, and the world, as long as the profits of the culture make it an object of desire or emulation to us. If we could have been dislodged from the vantage ground we hold, England would have already done it. She cares not to be thus dependent on us for a prime necessary of her commercial, nay, her political life. She has made experiment after experiment in India, to relieve herself of this dependence; followed in every case by deplorable failure. She has flattered, and cajoled, and bribed Egypt, with but small success; Egyptians need remunerating prices for their products, as well as we, and Egypt has not land to spare from the subsistence of her crowded population. Where can the raw material be found to keep employed the thousand workshops of Europe and America, if we decline the culture? Who shall supply our place, if we withdraw? There are signs of agitation in the public mind of England, in regard to this vital interest. There are schemes for encouraging the culture of cotton in other lands, and making themselves independent of our supplies. They even turn an eye of uncertain hope to Jamaica, to their West Indian colonies,—so long tortured by empyrical legislators, so long trampled by fanaticism; and after having starved them into such helpless imbecility, such utter exhaustion, that all effort is revolting to them—now vainly expect to galvanize them into the production of cotton! The expectation will never be fulfilled. There is but one possible way to effect their purpose. It is by giving higher prices for the product than are now paid. It is by tempting others to cultivate, by the promise of higher profits than are now realized on the capital engaged in the production, Will the cupidity of commerce *do that?* It does, and is doing, just the reverse. It is engaged in working short time, to drive down the price; in withholding bank accommodations to cotton dealers, lest by entering the market, they should compete with the manufacturers, and thus sustain the price. They are now engaged, I say, in beating down the price of our cotton, and would succeed, were they not met and foiled *by the shortness of the crop!* Gentlemen, we cannot be rivalled in this branch of industry—the production of cotton—while we possess along with our other advantages, the valley of the Mississippi; nor impoverished, except by our own act, *by over-production.*"

5. CULTURE OF RICE.

The millions of acres of land adapted to this most lucrative crop in Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, etc., give the subject an interest much wider than in South Carolina and Georgia, which have hitherto for the most part monopolized it. Many enquiries are made of us from time to time relating to the culture and preparation of this crop, and we have answered them by publishing Col. Allston's elaborate Memoir of the Rice Plant in our first volume, a Report on the Culture in India in our 3d vol., and some papers on the same in Alabama and Louisiana in our 5th and 8th volumes. To this we add the following, from the pen of Edmund Ruffin, one of the ablest agricultural writers in this nation, and the State Geologist of South Carolina, Virginia, &c. We shall resume the subject again:

"Rice is an aquatic plant, and naturally, it may be inferred, its growth was on lands always under water, or saturated with it whenever not altogether covered. And under culture, and even when in other than in its native region, doubtless rice would prefer the continuance of water. But other needs than the mere supply of food for the plants have to be provided for, which require a dry condition of the soil, at some periods. And fortunately, rice is so hardy that it will grow either under water or on dry land, and with violent alternations of these opposite conditions. It is necessary that the land should be dry to prepare for and plant the crop—also for the purpose of removing weeds, which being native to the soil and climate, are therefore more hardy than the cultivated crop—and again to reap and remove the matured crop. But it would seem to be the general principle of the culture, that the growing rice should be kept covered with water as much as is consistent with effecting the foregoing objects; and with another important exception, to indulging its aquatic nature and preference, which exception is, to avoid too sudden and thorough changes from the wet to the dry condition, or rather from the effects of those conditions."

PREPARATION OF LAND AND PLOUGHING.

"The flooding and drying of the rice land, when new, is conducted much in the same manner as in after time; but the preparation for, and tillage must vary, according to the state of the land and its wants, while the stumps, roots, and other superabundant and fine vegetable matters are gradually rotting away, and the soil consolidating and becoming lower and closer. Passing over the less regular operations of earlier years, let us suppose the latter condition reached; and the proper and usual course of culture, suitable to this permanent condition, will be now stated.

"We suppose the field to have been in rice the preceding year, and it is never wise on new and good land, and very rarely on any,—if the land be still new, or the soil loose enough, and sometimes also on old land, many persons, just before planting time, open new trenches for planting between the rows of the last year, the stubble having been burned off previously. But usually, and especially on old land, the whole surface is broken up flush, either by the hoe or the plough. The plough is far from being in general use; nor indeed is it admissable except on well drained land, and also firm land, such as the Peedee swamps. Even in these cases, some object to its being used every spring, but prefer it in every other spring, alternating with breaking by hoeing. This is because fearing to make the sub-soil too close by pressure. The breaking, whether by hoe or plough, rarely exceeds 3 inches deep; the deepest hoeing, done by sinking in the ordinary hoes 'up to the eye,' cannot be more than 4 inches, owing to the oblique direction of the cut. It is aimed to subvert the earth by the hoe; but this is always but imperfectly done, as is shown in the first flow by the quantity of floating stubble and roots, which had been left on the surface. I should have stated that the stubble of the preceding crop is most generally burnt off before the breaking up of the ground, or otherwise is turned in by the plough or hoe. If the birds had not been early enough in coming, and numerous enough to eat up all the shattered grains of the last year's crop of rice, the turning the stubble in, by planting all remaining grains, tends to increase the growth of volunteer rice—which evil, in such case, the other plan of burning to stubble would lessen.

"After the land is dug up, the next process is to 'slush' or clean out all the drains. When planting time draws near, part of the land, say about one third, is 'mashed,' that is, the clods chopped and the surface levelled by hoes. This is sometimes expedited by previous harrowing, but it is not a general practice. The balance of the land is mashed as wanted for planting, and just before the planting.

"The time to begin planting is from March 20th to April 1st. For this, the land, having been prepared and made fine enough by the 'mashing' process, just before, the rows are marked off, 13 inches apart, as follows: having determined on the direction of the rows, which is sometimes with the drains, but by most good planters is preferred across the direction of the drains, a number of rows, say 30 or more, are laid off 4 feet 4 inches apart, by 3 stakes stuck up in each row, the end stakes or 'trenching stakes' not reaching near to the extremity of the field designed to be planted at one time. Guided by these stakes, expert hands 'trench' rows with trenching hoes, about 2 inches deep. These hoes are narrowed to 3 or 4 inches at the edge, and of course open trenches of that width. Next, another hand follows, and by similar trenches splits the intervals, and then splits the halves, thus completing the rows at 13 inches. The expertness of the hands, and the accuracy of their work in these operations, are admirable. The seed is then strewed along the trenches, and scattered as wide as their width, by women. Two and a quarter bushels of good rice (rough, or in its close envelope of chaff,) are by many deemed enough for an acre. The seeds are covered immediately, either by rakes, hoes or covering boards, which are fixed with handles like rakes, and struck on the edge of the row, so as to throw a little earth upon the seeds.

"'*The sprout flow.*' The planting of each field should be completed the day it is begun, and on the next rise of tide, the trunk's outer door is lifted, and the water admitted to overflow the field. It should cover every part; and the depth is not deemed very material, though the shallowest complete covering by water is enough, and perhaps the best for the seed. A deep flow may injure the banks by washing them when the wind blows. Or it may even break an interior bank, if weak, by inward pressure. If the land be very light and loose vegetable soil, the water should be admitted slowly, for fear of washing, or even of floating some of the soil. As soon as a field is completely flowed, and the remains of stubble and other floated trash is wafted by the wind against a bank, it is drawn out by long handled rakes, and burnt as soon as it becomes dry. The inner valve is closed, when there is enough water on. This first watering is called the 'sprout flow,' and is continued until the seeds 'pip,' or the sprouts burst the envelope of chaff, when the water is drawn off. The time of this flow depends on the warmth of the weather. Sometimes only 4 or 5 days. In this most remarkably cold and backward season, (1843,) some plantings have been under the sprout flow for 14 days, and the seeds have not yet (on April 7th) sprouted.

"'*The point flow.*' After the water has been drawn off, it is necessary to guard the fields from birds. The land remains uncovered and drained until the plants have risen above ground enough for their fine spires to show like small needles, when viewed before sunrise, while tipped with dew, and when the rows can thus be seen for about 50 yards in length from the banks. Then the water is admitted again to cover the field. This is called the 'point flow.' It serves to protect the seeds from birds, to soften the hard lumps of earth, and to kill the grass, while it does not injure the rice plants. This flow continues from 3 to 7 days, and until the plants are 3 or 4 inches high. If the water be continued longer, the plants grow too slender and long, and will fall on the ground, when the support of the water is taken away—though they will rise again; and even were they to rot off, in that case new leaves will spring out. It is preferable to see the plants thus fall, rather than expose the rice too soon to the depredations of birds.

"As the different fields, or separately embanked portions, are successively planted (and the planting is usually continued from 4 to 5 weeks,) of course the flowing should follow in like order. Thus while water is going upon one piece, it may be passing off from another; and the separate but adjacent fields present all the various states of flooding and drying.

"*Planting in 'open trench.'* The foregoing description applies only when the plan of covering the seeds by earth is adopted. There is also in general use, and latterly a more extensively pursued plan, of *not* covering the seeds, and which will be now described.[*] For this mode, before planting, the seeds are 'clayed.' This consists in pouring water in which clay has been mixed and is suspended over a pile of seed rice, which is kept stirred and worked up until every grain is wetted. If this claying were not done, the small and short fibres on the grain would prevent the immediate access of the flow water, and the grains would float, which they cannot do. With this treatment, after being 'clayed,' (the effect of which is so slight as scarcely to alter the appearance of the grains,) the rice is dried enough to be distributed easily, and strewed in the trenches as before described. But no covering of earth is given; and as fast as each separate piece of land is thus planted, (or even before the last of it is finished,) the outer trunk door is lifted, and the tide admitted, slowly and gradually at first, to flow the land. The land remains undisturbed under this flow until the sprouts, which are at first white, become green, or the plants rise high enough to 'fork,' or for the first two leaves to separate, which will be when the plants are one and a half or two inches high, and at from 10 to 30 days, according to the weather. After this, the water is passed off, and the land dried. Floating trash should previously be removed, as before stated. If the surface should afterwards become too dry, the water is admitted to flow in for a single flood tide, to barely wet the soil, be kept shut in during the next ebb, and passed out and again excluded with the first lowering of tide thereafter.

"By this method (of 'planting in open trench') the longer duration of the first flowing unites and brings into one the 'sprout' and the 'point flow' of the covered planting. At the stages now reached by both, it may be considered that the plantings on the two methods cease to differ, and thereafter the crops on both are treated alike, and will be described as one.

"The advantages of the 'Open Trench' plan are the following:

"First: The whole labor of covering is saved, which requires twice as much labor as the strewing the seeds.

"Second: The depredations of birds and other vermin are prevented.

"Third: Most of the seeds of 'volunteer rice' and other weeds and grass seeds, may be presumed to have been drawn outside of the trenches in opening them; and instead of being again drawn back into the drills of rice in the earth, as must be done when the rice is covered, these seeds remain and grow outside of the drills, and may afterwards be more easily destroyed by hoeing or pulling out.

"Fourth: If a freshet of the river compels the water of the 'Sprout Flow' to be kept up much longer than the prescribed termination, the covered rice is apt to rot; of which there is no danger on the 'Open Trench' plan. The cause of this important difference is not understood—though it is supposed to be the beneficial influence of light in the one case, and its exclusion in the other.

"There are also countervailing objections to the 'Open Trench' plan, which will be named:

"First: The long continuation of the water (which sometimes, in early plantings or backward seasons, may extend to 25 or 30 days) promotes the growth of water grasses.

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[*] From a communication to the State Agricultural Society by the Hon. R. F. W. Allston, which has been published since this report was written, I learned that the honor of having first used and introduced this important improvement in rice culture is due to John H. Allston, Esq.

"Second: In light soil, the loose mould may be so moved by the agitation of the water by high winds, as to cover much of the seed unequally and too deep.*

"Third: The same operation is injurious to ditches and drains, by carrying soft earth into them.

"And fourth: By the dashing of the waves washing the sides of the banks, which last is the greatest defect in the plan.

"The balancing of the advantages and disadvantages of the 'Open Trench' plan prevents either that or the other mode being generally adopted exclusively. It is deemed best to choose between them according to circumstances; and usually, to plant and cover in part of the fields, say for about one-third of the crop, and to leave the balance in open trench."

FIRST AND SECOND HOEINGS, AND THE 'LONG FLOW.'

"The rice (on both the foregoing plans of planting) from the removal of the water, as already stated, remains dry until the plants have acquired enough size and strength to resist the pressure of the light earth as falling from the hoes. Then the intervals between the rows are hoed, by chopping short and shallow, suited to the then low state of the plants, and care should be taken not to cover the plants by clods; and all clods left previously on the plants should be cleared off at this hoeing.

"The rice land is left dry from the first hoeing until after the second, which is to be given from 14 to 18 days thereafter. The second hoeing is given a little deeper than the first; and any large weeds or grass then distinguishable in the rows are pulled up. The rice then has 3 leaves, and is 6 or 8 inches high. If in dry weather the land is left dry a day or two after this second hoeing, for the uprooted weeds to die, before the next water is turned on; but if wet weather, the land is flowed immediately. This is the 'long flow.' The water is raised at first above the tops of the plants, so as to float off trash, bugs, &c., which floating stuff will be driven by the wind into corners of the fields, and should be gathered up and removed. Then the water is lowered, so that, if the surface of the field be as level as usual, (and as it ought to be,) the tips of the plants are then seen above on the highest parts of the field. Then the water is lowered very gradually, and during several days, until the tips of about two-thirds of the plants of the entire field, or division of land, are above the surface of the water. The flow is then kept stationary at this precise height (which is fixed by making and observing marks on the trunk posts) for a duration of from 10 days on the lightest land to 20 on the stiffest, when the water is again entirely drawn off, which closes the 'long flow.' This is the most important flow, and its execution requires judgment and careful attention. At this critical period, a field of rice may be much injured either by too deep flowing, or by suddenly lowering and taking off the water. If the flow be continued too long, or the water be drawn off when the roots of the rice are in an exhausted condition, the plants will 'fox,' or take a reddish-brown tint.

"Some planters change the water during this flow, preserving the same level, but others object to it. If the same water is continued, it ferments, and a frothy scum rises, which being collected by the wind in particular spots, will adhere to and kill the plants. To prevent this, in such places the water is beaten or agitated, which causes the scum to break and sink to the bottom."

THIRD AND FOURTH HOEINGS, AND THE 'LAY-BY FLOW.'

"When the earth has become dry, the third hoeing is given, still deeper than the preceding, and afterwards each hand passes over his task, and pulls the grass out of the rows. The field then remains untouched and kept well drained until the plants are about to joint, when the fourth hoeing is given, light, and pulverizing all large masses left by the preceding deeper digging. The water is then again put on, and kept at about the same height as during the preceding 'long flow;' and this is maintained until the rice is fully headed and the blossoms dropped. The water is then raised as high as may be done without danger to the banks. It serves to support the plants, and prevent their being laid or tangled by high winds. This entire flowing is termed the 'lay-by water,' it being the last. It should have been mentioned that during the early and low stage of it, there is a distinct operation of the hands passing over the ground with baskets, and pulling out as much as possible of the volunteer rice, tick-grass, and other weeds, which would, if left, by admixture, injure the quality of the grain. The volunteer rice is carried off; and all other weeds are knotted together in handfuls and trodden in the wet earth under water, so as to be certainly killed. These two operations are performed at different and the most convenient times during the flow."

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* This objection may be easily obviated by letting the loose pulverized mould settle before sowing the seed. A rain will effect this purpose; and without rain, it may be done by turning in water for a single tide, and drying just before sowing the rice.

HARVESTING.

"The rice ripens usually from the 1st to the 10th of September. When all the grains are hard, except the lower two or three at the bottom of each head (though the stem and leaves are quite green) the crop is ready for reaping. And when the time for the commencement of reaping is determined upon, the water is drawn off of the field just the day before, or it may be best the preceding ebb tide; and the reaping may be begun when the flow has not yet entirely passed off. The reaping is performed by the sickle. Each hand usually carries a breadth of 3 rice rows. Some planters have 4 rows carried. The stubble is left about 12 inches high—or higher if of rank growth. The reaped rice is laid in handfuls as cut, in rows, on the stubble, to cure. The stubble is abundantly thick to thus support the rice, unless the growth is very thin, or has partially failed.

"All the rice reaped from morning until noon of one day is usually enough cured to be sheaved by noon the next day, and removed to the barn-yard before night. The test of its being dry enough, is when no juice can be made to exude from the joints, when twisted together by strong pressure. The rice is then bound or tied up in sheaves, as large as single lengths of the reaped rice will serve to tie around. The sheaves are generally made smaller than this. The sheaved rice is immediately carried to the barn-yard on the heads of the laborers, if near enough, or by water in large *flats*, if far from the barn. It is there put up in small cocks or ricks, to remain until dry enough to be put into larger long ricks or larger round stacks, to remain until taken down for thrashing. The mode of putting up the rice in the ricks or stacks cannot be well made clear by mere description. The execution, however, is excellent, and of the round stacks is admirable. The latter is the best mode, when well performed. The loss or injury of the grain by the exposure before thrashing is not usually considerable, when the ricking or stacking has been well executed."

VOLUNTEER RICE.

"What is called 'Volunteer Rice' is the product of grains scattered at the previous harvest, and which remain on or under the surface of the ground through winter, and come up with the next planted crop. By this long exposure to cold, wet and overflow, as would occur in a state of nature, it seems that the plant is disposed to revert from its artificial character and qualities, as before improved by culture, to its previous natural character and habits. At least this is the only reason that I can conceive for the singular production and qualities of volunteer rice. The plants thus produced, and also the product of their seeds, as generally believed, if saved with the crop and planted, become intermixed with the good seed, have grains with a red interior skin or pellicle instead of white, as of ordinary and good rice. There are 4 different and common kinds of volunteer rice, and even different varieties among each of these, in the lighter or deeper tint of redness, or less or greater thickness of the red pellicle. These 4 kinds of red or volunteer rice, all agreeing in having a red pellicle, are distinguished as follows:

First. White chaffed samples.

Second. With white chaff, having a black point, and spike to one end of the chaff. This is the ordinary and general kind.

Third. With yellow chaff, and having a long point.

The seeds of all these three fall off so easily, as rarely to be harvested and brought to the barn yard; and especially the last, which drops its seed before they seem ripe.

Fourth. With yellow chaff, and like the last, except that the seeds do not fall off in the field, and the grains cannot readily be distinguished from good rice, while the chaff remains unbroken.

"All these, except the last kind, may be distinguished in the field before maturing the seeds, and by using care and labor enough, the plants pulled out and destroyed. But the last kind cannot be known either on the stalk or in the chaff. But with the care used to keep land clear of red rice, it continues more or less infested with all the kinds. And though the grain is not the worse in any thing but some slight remains of red tint, so despotic is Fashion in the market, that a crop of rice loses greatly in appreciation if thus showing many grains of volunteer rice. I have been informed that in Italy the admixture is not regarded by the buyers for home consumption. The plants of volunteer rice are usually the most hardy, thrifty and luxuriant of the crop—which helps to confirm the opinion that it is rice approaching more nearly to its natural and hardy character.

"As there are different varieties of cultivated rice, it is probable that to this difference of origin may be owing the different kinds of volunteer rice. A white chaffed rice was formerly generally cultivated, which has been universally substituted by the 'gold seed' or yellow chaffed rice.

"The circumstances stated, require great care to prevent as much as possible the growth, and still more the increase of volunteer rice, which is indeed a very injurious weed to the crop; both because its own product (if it were worth anything,) is mostly lost to the crop, and moreover that what of it is saved serves to contaminate the seed, and lower the quality and market price of the crop for sale."

RESTING AND MANURING RICE LAND.

"The cultivation of rice on embanked marsh lands is generally continued year after year, for a long time, without cessation or rest to the land. But rich and deep as is the alluvial soil, it becomes tired and gradually less productive under this unceasing and unchanged production of rice, and it is found profitable to give rest, and also manure, to the lands when long cultivated. Most planters, who have land enough, give a year's rest at distant intervals, and always find a profit from it, in the increase of the next year's cultivation. It may be doubted whether this increase may not be truly ascribed in part to the alternation or change of growth, as well as to the improvement of fertility. Mr. John H. Allston rests his land (which is clay soil on the Pee Dee) for two years together, keeping it dry during the time; and he finds that this, if done once in 10 or 12 years, will add 50 per cent. to the next crop, or raise it from a previous product of 40 bushels to 60 per acre. Manuring with the rice-straw is also practised with advantage by those planters who have no high-land or other culture, or not enough to require the straw as manure. Dr. Heriot is one of these, and has lately applied his rice-straw to fields thrown out of rice culture for that year, and cultivated (dry, of course,) in cow-peas. This change and manuring he has found to double the next crop of rice. Colonel Belie has, by manuring and rest, made upwards of 90 bushels of (rough) rice to the acre. Both he and Dr. Heriot own and raise on Sandy Island, of which barren sandy soil is their only highland, and on which their manure was before entirely thrown away, or left to rot in waste, without producing the most transient productive power."

6. AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT IN TEXAS.

The correspondent of the New-York Herald, writing from Brazoria county, Texas, has lately given the following interesting particulars of the agriculture of that State:

"It is true, several are abandoning cotton for sugar, which is a surer and far more profitable crop; but this does not decrease the production of cotton, as many persons with numbers of hands are daily settling here and opening new places. These persons are generally from the old states, (Louisiana excepted.) The people of that state generally are connected with sugar. They go to Matagorda county and Brazoria county, the latter producing three fourths of the sugar made in Texas. But I will state where the sugar estates are situated: there are three or four on the Guadaloupe; these ship their sugar down that river into Matagorda or Lavaca bay. About the same number are on the Colorado; the sugar made on these estates finds a good inland market for home consumption. There are seven or eight on Coney Creek; they pass by Matagorda with an expensive land carriage, and at a ruinous cost and loss. Some of them have much sugar; yet in their purgeries and large quantities of molasses, the latter scarcely averages sufficient to defray expenses from such an out-of-the-way place, on such shocking bad roads. I must be understood not to mean all of Coney Creek, as the lower part is better situated; but the upper estates, together with their owners, are in a bad fix. The next estates are in Brazoria county, on the Bernard, or near enough to convey their produce to the river by February, from whence it is taken in vessels of light draught to Galveston. The majority of the estates, however, lie near the Brazos, and on Oyster Creek. Those planters can ship at any time during the season, in large schooners, brigs or steamers, so as to command an early market. There is a bar at the entrance of this river covered with shallow water; but I am told, vessels of seven feet pass over with safety during the time of year when sugar and other staples are being shipped. There is some talk of a company starting a mechanical camel, such as are used on the Neva in Prussia, and on the Zuyder Zee, to convey ships over shoals; and as this bar is but about one hundred yards long, there is little doubt of their answering a good purpose. Those in Europe will take a ship of 1,000 tons, drawing 20 feet water, over a flat, bar or shoal, where there is not more than five or six feet water, at any time in a few hours.

"Some sugar is made on the Trinity; this is easily conveyed to Galveston. Some planters sold their crops in the sugar-house last year, and many would, no doubt, be happy to do so this coming season. I saw one crop sold upon the following terms: Sugar, fair, 4 cents; molasses, superior, $6 50 per barrel of 45 gallons; syrup, $8 per barrel. This was, barrels included and put on board the vessel by the planter. I assure you, there is a great opening for Northern merchants to come here and speculate, in the fall.

"Another profitable business might be carried on by sending out vessels with empty barrels to purchase molasses, as barrels are worth $1 75 to $2, here, and molasses might be bought cheap where you find your own casks. If things are looked at in a proper light, there is a better opening here for your traders than many would suppose, as the sugars of Texas are equal in quality to the best made in Louisiana. The last year's crop was about 7,500 tons, and molasses, with syrup, 800,000 gallons. We may safely estimate the coming crop, which promises well, at 12,000 tons of sugar and upwards of 1,000,000 gallons of molasses.

"I must explain why the quantity of molasses does not increase in a like ratio with the sugar. As the lands, which are rather too rich for cane, become worn, the canes produce more sugar and less molasses; another reason is, some of the planters are erecting apparatus to convert their molasses into sugar and sugar-house molasses. This is an improvement of vast importance.

"There are seven or eight steam mills and other machinery going up, to be used for the coming crop. One of the largest refineries in the United States is also in the course of erection on the Brazos—it will be completed by October. At Velasco, at the mouth of the same river, is also a large beef-curing establishment, nearly completed. Its apparatus is very costly. It is an improvement upon Dr. Lardner's vacuum process, and it is anticipated they will cure one hundred beeves daily.

"No state would be better intersected than this, if all the plank-roads, railways and canals were in active operation, which their projectors have laid down on paper; but the capital is wanting to build them. As regards climate and soil, past years have proved the former to suit sugar culture to a T. As to the latter, analysis proves it to be equal to the Delta of the Nile.

"Although the planters here have more expenses in shipping their crops, and are little further from the market than the Louisianians, nevertheless, they are enabled to cope with them, as the amount of capital required to start a sugar plantation here is not half what it requires in Louisiana. The Texas planter can produce more to the acre and to the hand. The feeding of his negroes does not cost half as much, and his team is procured and maintained at one-third the expense."

7. HOGS KILLED IN THE WEST.

FROM the best information he could obtain, by personal inspection and otherwise, Mr. L. Caldwell has published in the Lafayette, Indiana, Courier of February 28th, a statement of the number of hogs slaughtered in the west during the past season. His aggregates are as follows: Ohio, 523,755; Kentucky, 198,000; Indiana, 428,575; Illinois, 268,100; Mississippi River, 252,900; Missouri river, cs't, 75,000; Cumberland river, es't, 100,000. Other small points overlooked, 25,000. Grand total, 1,871,330.

6.—GRAINGER'S SONG OF THE CANE FIELDS.

In our August number, p. 243, we gave a short sketch of the history of that curious work on the sugar cane, written in the last century, in poetry, by Mr. Grainger. To the extracts then furnished, we add several others, for the gratification of our readers, reminding them again that the author's experience extended only to the British West Indies.

HUSBANDRY IMPROVED.

Planter, Improvement is the child of Time;
What your sires knew not, ye, their offspring, know;
But hath your art received Perfection's stamp?
Thou canst not say.—Unprejudiced, then learn
Of ancient modes to doubt, and new to try;
And if Philosophy, with Wisdom, deign
Thee to enlighten with useful lore,
Fair fame and riches will award thy toil.
Then say, ye swains, whom wealth and fame aspire,
Might not the plough, that rolls on rapid wheels,
Save no small labor to the hoe-arm'd gang?
By Ceres' son, unfailing crops secure;
Though neither dung nor fallowing lent their aid?

NEGROES AT WORK.

Thy negro train (in linen lightly wrapp'd),
Who, now that painted Iris girds the sky,
(Aeriel arch, which fancy loves to stride!)
Disperse, all-jocund, o'er the long-hoed land.
The bundles some untie; the wither'd leaves
Others strip artful off, and careful lay,
Twice one junk, distant in the amplest bed.
Oer these, with hasty hoe, some lightly spread
The mounded interval, and smooth the trench:
Well pleased, the master swain reviews their toil,
And rolls, in fancy, many a full fraught cask.
So, when the shield was forged for Pelus' son,
The swarthy Cyclops shared the important task:
With bellows, some revived the seeds of fire;
Some, gold, and brass, and steel together fused
In the vast furnace, while a chosen few,
In equal measures, lifting their bare arms,
Inform the mass; and, hissing in the wave,
Temper the glowing orb; their sire beholds,
Amazed, the wonders of his fusile art.

STRIPPING THE CANE.

And now thy cane's first blades their verdure lose,
And hang their idle heads. Be these stripp'd off:
So shall fresh sportive airs their joints embrace,
And by their dalliance give the sap to rise;
But, O, beware! let no unskilful hand
The vivid foliage tear: their channel'd spouts,
Well pleased, the watery nutriment convey,
With filial duty, to the thirsty stem:
And, spreading wide their reverential arms,
Defend their parent from solstitial skies.

ENEMIES TO THE CANE FIELDS.

Destructive, on the upland sugar groves,
The monkey nation preys: from rocky heights,
In silent parties, they descend by night,
And posting watchful sentinels to warn
When hostile steps approach, with gambols, they
Pour o'er the cane grove. Luckless he to whom
That land pertains! in evil hour, perhaps,
And thoughtless of to-morrow, on a die
He hazards millions; or, perhaps, reclines
On luxury's soft lap, the pest of wealth;
And, inconsiderate, deems his Indian crops
Will amply her insatiate wants supply.
From these insidious droles (peculiar pest
Of Liamulga's hills) wouldst thou defend
Thy waving wealth? in traps put not thy trust,
However baited; treble every watch,
And well with arms provide them; faithful dogs,
Of nose sagacious, on their footsteps wait.
With these attack the predatory bands;
Quickly the unequal conflict they decline,
And, chattering, fling their ill-got spoils away.
So, when, of late, in numerous Gallic hosts,
Fierce, wanton, cruel, did by stealth invade
The peaceful American's domains,
While desolation mark'd their faithless rout,
No sooner Albion's martial sons advanced,
Than the gay dastards to their forests fled,
And left their spoils and tomahawks behind.
Nor with less waste, the whisker'd vermin race,
A countless calm, despoil the lowland cane.
These to destroy, while commerce hoists the sail,
Loose rocks abound, or tangling bushes bloom,
What planter knows?—Yet prudence may reduce.
Encourage, then, the breed of savage cats,
Nor kill the winding snake; thy foes they eat.
Thus, on the mangrove banks of Guyaquil,
Child of the rocky desert, sealike stream,
With studious care, the American preserves
The gallinazo, else that sealike stream
(Whence traffic pours her bounties on mankind)
Dread alligators would alone possess.

WORK IN THE CANE FIELDS.

Some rending, of their sapless burden ease
The yellow pointed canes, (whose height exceeds
A mounted trooper, and whose clammy round
Measures two inches full.) and near the root
Lops the stem off, which quivers in their hands
With fond impatience; soon its branchy spires
(Food to thy cattle) it resigns; and soon
Its tender prickly tops, with eyes thick set,
To load with future crops thy long-hoed land.
These, with their green, their pliant branches bound,
(For not a part of this amazing plant
But serves some useful purpose,) charge the gang:
Not laziness declines this easy toil;
E'en lameness from its leafy pallet crawls,
To join the favor'd gang. What of the cane
Remains, and much the largest part remains,
Cut into junks, a yard in length, and tied
In small light bundles, load the broad-wheel'd wain,
The mules crook-harness'd, and the sturdier crew
With sweet abundance. As on Lincoln plains,
(Ye plains of Lincoln sound your Dyer's praise!)
When the loved snow-white flocks are numerous penn'd;
The senior swains, with sharpen'd shears, cut off
The fleecy vestment; others stir the tar;

And some impress, upon their captives' sides,
Their master's cipher; while the infant throng
Strive by the horns to hold the struggling ram,
Proud of their prowess. Nor meanwhile the jest
Light bandied round, but innocent of ill,
Nor choral song, are wanting; echo rings.

SUGAR BOILING.

Thy foaming coppers well with fuel feed;
For a clear, strong, continued fire improves
Thy muscovado's color and its grain.
Yet vehement heat, protracted, will consume
Thy vessels, whether from the martial mine
Or from thine ore, bright Venus, they are drawn;
Or hammer, or hot fusion, give them form.
If prudence guides thee, then, thy stores shall hold
Of well-sized vessels a complete supply;
For every hour thy boilers cease to skim
(Now cancer reddens with the solar ray)
Defeats thy honest purposes of gain.
Nor small the risk (when piety, or chance,
Force thee from boiling to desist) to leave
Thy heated furnace with the gelid stream.
The chymist knows, when all dissolving fire
Bids the metalline ore abruptly flow,
What dread explosions, and what dire effects
A few cold drops of water will produce,
Uncautious, on the novel fluid thrown.
For grain and color, wouldst thou win, my friend,
At every curious mart, the constant palm?
O'er all thy works let cleanliness preside,
Child of frugality, and, as the skum
Thick mantles o'er the boiling wave, do thou
The skum that mantles carefully remove.
From bloating dropsy, from pulmonic ails,
Wouldst thou defend thy boilers (prime of slaves)
For days, for nights, for weeks, for months, involved
In the warm vapor's all relaxing steam;
Thy boiling-house be lofty; all stops
Open, and pervious to the tropic breeze;
Whose cool perflation, woo'd through many a grate,
Dispels the steam, and gives the lungs to play.
The skill'd in chemic boast of modern arts,
Know from experiments, the sire of Truth,
In many a plant that oil, and acid juice,
And ropy mucilage, by nature live;
These, envious, stop the much desired embrace
Of the essential salts, though coction bid
The aqueous particles to mount in air.

* * * * * *

While flows the juice mellifluent from the cane,
Grudge not, my friend, to let thy slaves, each morn,
But chief the sick and young, at setting day,
Themselves regale with oft repeated draughts
Of tepid nectar; so shall health and strength
Confirm thy negroes, and make labor light.
While flame thy chimneys, while thy coppers foam,
How blithe, how jocund the plantation smiles!
By day, by night, resounds the choral song
Of glad barbarity: serene, the sun
Shines not intensely hot; the trade-wind blows:
How sweet, how silken is its noontide breath!
While to far climes the fell destroyer, Death,
Wings his dark flight. Then seldom pray for rain;
Rather for cloudless days thy prayers prefer;
For, if the skies too frequently relent,
Crude flows the cane-juice, and will long elude
The boiler's wariest skill; thy canes will spring
To an unthrifty loftiness; or, weigh'd
Down by their load, (ambition's curse,) decay.
Encourage thou thy boilers; much depends
On their skill'd efforts. If too soon they strike,
Ere all the watery particles have fled,
Or lime sufficient granulate the juice,
In vain the thickening liquor is effused,
A heterogenous, an uncertain mass,
And never in thy coolers to condense.
Or, planter, if the coaction they prolong
Beyond its stated time; the viscous wave
Will in huge flinty masses crystallize,
Which forceful fingers scarce can crumble down;
And which with its molasses ne'er will part;
Yet this, fast dripping in nectareous drops,
Not only betters what remains, but, when
With art fermented, yields a noble wine,
Than which nor Gallia, nor the Indian clime,
Where rolls the Ganges, can a nobler show.
So misers in their coffers lock that gold
Which, if allow'd at liberty to roam,
Would better them, and benefit mankind.
In the last coppers, when the embrowning wave
With sudden fury swells, some grease, unmix'd,
The foaming tumult sudden will compose,
And force to union the divided grain.
So when two swarms in airy battle join,
The winged heroes heap the bloody field,
Until some dust, thrown upward in the sky
Quell the wild conflict, and sweet peace restore.
False Gallia's sons, that hoe the ocean isles,
Mix with their sugar loads of worthless sand,
Fraudful their weight of sugar to increase.
Far be such guiles from Britain's honest swains.
Such arts, a while, the unwary may surprise,
And benefit the impostor; but, ere long,
The skilful buyer will the fraud detect,
And, with abhorrence, reprobate the name.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1. MANUFACTURES IN THE SOUTH.

We ask the attentive consideration of the reader to the following extract from an able editorial in the last Dry-Goods Reporter:

"At the present moment, among the producers of cloth in those sections, namely, the Northern and Middle States, which have hitherto been regarded as the chief seats of manufacturing industry, there appears to be, and doubtless is, something less of that prosperity which, upon an average throughout the whole country, is unusually marked. The value of raw material has risen disproportionately to the price of fabrics, and although the demand for the latter is good, the supply is more than equal to it; that is to say, notwithstanding that raw material is very high and manufacturers complain of inadequate prices, they nevertheless buy and work up a larger quantity of raw material than ever before, in the face of enhanced importations of rival productions. This is an anomaly which puzzles many; but if we reflect upon the causes which are in operation to stimulate competition, we arrive at something like a solution. We may reflect that political causes in Europe have operated to keep goods cheap in Lancashire, and by so doing, to promote large exports to this side of the Atlantic, at a moment when three incentives to manufacturing rivalry have acted upon the South and West. These are, first, abundance of capital; second, the influence of the improvements in steam-power and machinery emancipating factory labor from water-power localities; and lastly, political motives.

"The South has abundance of capital, evinced in the fact that the crop thus far delivered, say 2,000,000 bales, has realised $104,000,000, against $80,000,000 for 2,620,000 bales last year; that is to say, a quantity diminished by one-fourth lessening to the same extent the expenses of freight, packing, weighing, etc., while rates of exchange are high, drawn against high values, have enabled the South, as a whole, probably to realise $30,000,000 more money from this crop than from the last. With these means factories have so multiplied, that not short of 175,000 spindles are now in operation in the cotton states, requiring 100,000 bales of cotton per annum, and every mail brings advices of some new one going up. This rivalry affects the old-established factories the more that the new factories are all armed with the newest improved machinery, and will produce at probably 20 per cent. better advantage. The competition from this quarter is every way calculated to diminish the old margin between the cost of raw material and that of fabrics; therefore those old concerns which had reached the minimum margin at which they could work, must shut up shop and give place to more competent operators."

2. SOUTHERN MANUFACTURES.—GEORGIA.

The Albany (Ga.) *Patriot* of the 11th inst. gives the following description of the factories in the city of Columbus in that State:

"The Coweta Falls Manufacturing Company's establishment occupies a large brick building, containing 2,500 spindles, which make from 1,400 to 1,800 lbs. of thread per day; 44 looms, making 1,800 yards of heavy osnaburgs per day; 24 cotton cards, 3 wool cards, and one wool jack. They also manufacture a considerable quantity of linseys, which are more profitable than osnaburgs and yarns. They employ from 115 to 120 boys and girls, from twelve years old upwards. Average wages—Superintendent, $1,000 per annum; overseers, $30 to $60 per month; weavers, $15; carders, $8; spinners, $7,50. Power—One of Rich's centre vent wheels, five feet diameter, capable of carrying as much more machinery. Profits on investment 10 to 15 per cent.

Near this establishment is Carter's Factory—a large brick building, six stories high; cost, $10,200; privilege 3000 calculated for 200 looms and 10,000 spindles. Estimated value when completed, $100,000; will employ from 800 to 1000 hands.

Not far from this building, is the Howard Manufacturing Company's establishment. The building is of brick, 50 by 125 feet, six stories. It contains 5,000 spindles, 103 looms—40 more to be added. Entire cost $100,000. They manufacture 15,000 yards of cotton osnaburgs, sheetings and shirtings per week, and 400 to 500 lbs. thread; employ 100 hands from twelve years old upwards, one-third of whom are males; wages from 12 to 75 cents per day for common hands; assistants, $1 to $1 25; overseers, from $2 to $2 50; superintendent, $900 per year. Consumption, 1,200 bales cotton. Past profits, under some difficulties, have varied from $34 to $100 per day; estimated future profits, 20 per cent. on investment. There is an extensive machine shop connected with this manufactory. We examined some bales of cloth made by this establishment, and found it of a very superior quality. The hands, male and female, had a general appearance of cleanliness, health and contentment. The proprietors of the manufactories have made arrangements for preaching, Sunday schools, and a daily free schools, for the operatives and their families.

We next visited Winters' Palace Mills. This is a large brick edifice, of six stories, occupied by a machine shop, four runs of mill stones—two for wheat and two for corn—with all the necessary flouring apparatus, capable of turning out from 80 to 100 barrels of flour per day. The entire cost was stated to be some $50,000. Ten thousand bushels of wheat had recently been purchased in Baltimore, and was being made into flour at this mill.

Near this establishment, is one which is rightly termed "Variety Works"—sawing lumber, planing, making tubs, pails, bedsteads, window blinds, sashes, &c., all by machinery adapted to these purposes. This is doubtless one of the most profitable establishments in Columbus.

These several establishments are situated on the east bank of the river, and are propelled by water, taken from the great conduit, which has been constructed of stone, to receive and retain the water of the Chattahoochee river at a sufficient elevation to afford the necessary power. The head of water thus furnished, is from 10 to 14 feet. This conduit is calculated for supplying the power for many other manufactories.

There are two iron foundries in Columbus, which turn out a large amount of castings and machinery for mills, steamboats, &c. They employ a steam engine.

The City Mills.—In the upper part of Columbus, is a large wood structure, occupied by four sets of mill stones, two for flour and two for corn—and extensive flouring works.

On the river above the city, are several establishments, which we had not the pleasure of visiting; among them the Rock Island Paper Manufacturing Company. Capital employed, $40,000, to be increased to $45,000, to complete the machinery. They now manufacture 1,000 lbs. when the machinery is completed. Cost of rags and other materials, from 1 to 3½ cents per lb. Price of paper, from 10 to 12½ cents per lb. Employ 7 girls, 2 boys, 13 men, and 1 teamster. Wages—Girls, $8 per month; foreman, $100; machinist, $60; two operatives, $40 each. Main building, 75 by 36 feet, three stories, besides finishing room, warehouse, &c.

In all cases where we have given the wages, the parties employed board and lodge themselves.

3. OUR DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES.

The United States Journal says: "The value of domestic cotton manufactures, including white, printed and colored goods, exported from the United States, in each of the past twety-two years, was as follows:

1828,	$1,010,232	1839,	$2,975,033
1829,	1,250,457	1840,	3,549,607
1830,	1,218,183	1841,	3,122,546
1831,	1,126,313	1842,	2.770,690
1832,	1,229,574	1843,	3,233,550
1833,	2,532,517	1844,	2,898,780
1834,	2,084,994	1845,	4,327,923
1835,	2,858,681	1846,	3,545,481
1836,	2,255,739	1847,	4,082,522
1837,	2,831,475	1848,	5,718,209
1838,	3,758,755	1849,	4,421,091

"In less than twenty years, the increase in exports has been more than 400 per cent.; while it must also be borne in mind, that with this great increase in exportation there was all the time a far greater increase in domestic consumption, corresponding with the increase in our population. In fact, nine-tenths of the goods manufactured are consumed by our own people, and the manufacturer depends entirely upon the demand at home."

4. MOBILE COTTON FACTORY.

The extensive buildings, for the future operations of this company, are located four and a half miles from the city, on Bayou Durand—commonly called Dog River—nine miles from its entrance into Mobile Bay. Steamboats can land freight and receive it within fifty yards of the factory. This location was preferred to one in the city, because, being in the pine woods, all danger from epidemics, to which the city is sometimes subject, was avoided—thus enabling the company to continue their business through the year; and it also removes those engaged in the factory from city influences—which are not always favorable to good order and industry. For general health, no more favorable location can be found any where. After all the improvements contemplated are completed, "Fulton," the name adopted, will prove one of the pleasantest villages in the State.

The factory building is built in the most substantial manner, of hard-burned brick, and appears to combine, in the design, every thing necessary for a complete cotton factory. The main building is 182 feet long by 54 wide—110½ feet three stories, and 71½ only two stories. There are 195 windows and 4,750 lights in the house. The roof is well covered with slate, laid on sheathing, tongued and groved, and as tight as a floor. It is fronted by a square tower four stories high, 17 by 18 feet and 70 feet to the top of the belfry. The brick consumed amounted to 750,000. Cost of factory, $27,000. The three story building will be occupied—the first by 176 looms—the second by 40 carding machines—the third by 5,040 spindles—with such other "fixings" as may be necessary; the work, &c., &c., to be transposed from one room to the other by machinery. A large water tank is built in the third story, with hose to carry water to all parts of the building. The water is forced into the tank by the engine. The two story building is appropriated for the engine room and machine shop on the first floor, and the second for a sizing room. The machinery of the mill, which is just being opened and put in place, looks to be of the most approved kind and was got up by the Mattewan Company in the very best style. When ready for work, the mill will require 200 operatives—three-fourths females—and will manufacture, when in full operation, 6,000 yards of yard-wide sheeting per day.

The motive power consists of two engines of 75 horse power each, low pressure, twenty inch cylinders, four feet stroke, forty revolutions per minute; four boilers, thirty-six feet long, which are located in an adjoining room to that which contains the engine. The smoke stack is eighty-two feet high, ten feet square at the base and five by six at the top, and located thirty feet from the mill. The smoke is taken from the boilers to the chimney under ground.—(*Advertiser.*)

5. AUGUSTA (GEORGIA) TRADE.

There is no city in the Union with more enterprising merchants than Augusta, when her population is taken into consideration; and there is no city in the Union where better prices are paid for produce, or goods sold at lower profits. Her merchants are proverbial as business men, and they act upon the correct principle of quick sales and small profits. If they can see what they call a "margin" between this and other markets, they are liberal purchasers; but frequently they figure ahead, and purchase *with the hope* of finding a "margin" elsewhere. There has hardly been a week during the past season when cotton did not bring as high a price in this market as in either Charleston or Savannah, and such will continue to be the case. Some planters we know have shipped their cotton to Charleston and Savannah by way of trial, but they have nearly all come "bock" again, and are no doubt satisfied that "to go further is but to fare worse."

All our merchants ask is a trial—they now have on hand good stocks of goods—and offer them at moderate profits; and if buyers can do better elsewhere, they will not look to their interests if they do not do so.

Those who wish to give our market a trial would do well to examine our advertising columns.

6. SALUDA FACTORY, S. C.—NEGRO LABOR.

We had the gratification recently of visiting this factory, situated on the Saluda River, near Columbia, and of inspecting its operations. It is on the slave-labor, or anti free-soil system; no operators in the establishment but blacks. The superintendent and overseers are white, and of great experience in manufacturing. They are principally from the manufacturing districts of the North, and although strongly prejudiced on their first arrival at the establishment against African labor, from observation and more experience they all testify to their equal efficiency, and great superiority in many respects. So as not to act precipitately, the experiment of African labor was first tested in the spinning department; since which, the older spinners have been transferred to the weaving-room. They commenced in that department on the 1st of July, and are now turning out as many yards to the loom as was performed under the older system. A weaver from Lowell has charge of this department, and she reports that, while there is full as much work done by the blacks, they are much more attentive to the condition of their looms. They all appear pleased with the manipulations on which they are employed, and are thus affording to the South the best evidence that, when the channels of agriculture are choked, the manufacturing of our own productions will open new channels of profitable employment for our slaves. The resources of the South are great, and it should be gratifying to all who view these facts with the eye of a statesman and philanthropist, that the sources of profitable employment and support to our rapidly-increasing African labor are illimitable, and must remove all motives for emigration to other countries. By an enlightened system of internal improvements, making all parts of our state accessible, and by a judicious distribution of our labor, South Carolina may more than double her productive slave labor, and not suffer from too dense a population.

7. COTTON FACTORY IN MISSISSIPPI.

CHOCTAW, MI., June 4, 1850.

OUR mill is located ten miles south of Greensboro', in a poor, healthy neighborhood; fine water, good society, churches, schools, &c. We have but one grog-shop within seven miles of us, and that will probably not last long.

Our building is made of wood, 108 feet long, 48 wide, and three stories high. We are now running about 800 spindles, 10 cards, 12 looms, and all the accompanying necessary machinery for spinning and weaving. Owing to the high price of cotton we have stopped our looms. We have 500 spindles and five cards more, not finished; we shall probably get them in operation for the next crop. We carry on a machine shop in which we make every variety of machinery for carding and spinning. Our looms are built by Messrs. Rogers, Kechum & Grovanon, of Patterson, N. J. They are heavy and substantial, and are built for making heavy Linsey and Osnaburgs, such as are most used in the South. I think that companies in this state intending to embark in the manufacturing business, would do well to call and see our machinery before buying elsewhere. We have just completed the finest flour mill in this state, or equal to any in the South. We will show flour with the St. Louis or any other mill North or South.

We use a large fine Semple Engine, made by Messrs. Thurston, Green & Co., Providence. It is admired by all visitors for its great capacity and simplicity. It is run by a negro engineer, who also serves as fireman, who had no acquaintance with engines until he took hold of this. We have a double cylinder wool card that cards the wool twice as well as most of the country cards that have only one, and will turn off two hundred pounds of rolls a day, for which we charge 8 c. a pound.

8. COTTON FACTORIES IN ALABAMA.

We seldom take up a paper published in the southern and western states of the Union, that does not contain some new development of their manufacturing industry. In a brief notice of the progress of Alabama in that direction, the Tuscaloosa *Observer* remarks:

> " We were shown last week some samples of Cottonades, Ginghams, Checks, and Osnaburgs, colored and plain, made at the factory of Patton, Donegan & Co., Huntsville, which for quality and durability would compare with similar goods made in the manufacturing towns of the North. The colored goods were excellent, and were we not assured of the contrary, we should have pronounced them Eastern goods.
>
> " The factory at Florence, owned by Martin, Weekly & Co., is doing a thrifty business. It works 46 looms—turning 1,600 spindles, and produces 80,000 yards of cloth per week. Besides this large amount of cloth, it manufactures also 6,000 dozen of thread per week. The weekly consumption of cotton is about 6,000 lbs., averaging 750 bales of cotton per year.
>
> " As an instance of the prosperity of factories in this region, a new one is about being established on the same stream, on the opposite side, which, it is calculated, will consume 40 bales of cotton per week.
>
> " The factory in this city is about increasing its number of looms. At this time it works only 40, which are chiefly employed in manufacturing the four qualities of goods. In a few weeks the present number of looms will be increased to 72. The cloths made at this factory are in high repute and meet with ready sales."

9. SOUTHERN GRANITE. No. III.

BY A CHARLESTON WORKING MAN.

We have now come to a consideration of the means of conveying the excellent building stone to be found in the vicinity of Columbia to Charleston, where it is at all times in great demand for building purposes. Whether water carriage can be advantageously resorted to, we will not at present undertake to determine; but it is not unlikely that this mode of conveyance may be availed of beneficially and economically. The South Carolina Railroad is the great avenue to which we confidently look, and upon which we must at present rely, for developing this important branch of industry. The President and Directors of this Company, alive as they are to every matter of state interest, are disposed, we feel assured, to render every reasonable facility, and we doubt not they will be willing to transport granite from Columbia to Charleston at the rate of two dollars per ton, or even less. A much lower rate than this for heavy freight has been reached on some of the railways in Pennsylvania and elsewhere. On those roads, the price for transportation, for coal, is usually equivalent to $1,50 per ton, for 100 miles; but in some cases, where canal competition has been encountered, it is carried for $1,12½ per ton.

At $2 per ton we think it would be a profitable business for the road, and would pay quite as well as a large proportion of the freight which now passes over it. Cotton is frequently brought from Hamburg to Charleston at 50 cents per bale. The Carolina bales from that point average about 350 pounds; but by far the larger proportion sent from there, probably three-fourths, are Georgia bales, which average over 450 pounds—enough over that average probably to make the average weight of all the cotton bales coming thence 450 pounds. Assuming this as the correct average, the freight, at 50 cents per bale, gives one-ninth of a cent per pound. A ton of granite, of 2,240 pounds, at $2 per ton, gives a fraction over one-eleventh of a cent per pound. But any number of tons of granite can be brought over the road at less expense to the Company than the same weight of cotton, or any other light freight, because it occupies less car-room. In ascertaining the cost of freight to the carriers on railroads, one very important element of calculation is the space occupied; and as a general rule, the relative friction to be overcome by the propelling power may be determined pretty nearly by taking into account the number of car-wheels set in motion by any given quantity of freight. With a rail heavy enough for any weight to run upon it without injury, concentration of the load is the most effectual economy, and leads to the use of powerful locomotives.

It certainly results in a saving in the wear and tear of cars and car-wheels as well as steam-power. Let us suppose that a full loaded car of granite will weigh five times as much as the same loaded with cotton, the wheels of the granite cars being of sufficient strength, and then consider the quantum of propelling power necessary in each case. Five times the number of wheels will be required for the cotton, and consequently a great proportional increase of friction must arise, which can only be overcome by augmenting the propelling power. Besides, in accordance with a generally understood law of locomotion, the force necessary to propel a train of cars, of any specified weight, must be increased as the train is lengthened. A car distant from the engine requires more power to propel it than one of the same weight nearer to it, and at sudden curves in a road the increase of burthen arising from length of train is very sensibly felt. We may also keep in view that laternal motion of the cars, which forms so serious an impediment to progress, and which increases in proportion as the car is distant from the engine—a fact which is readily appreciated by observant travellers on passenger trains in rapid motion.

Another consideration may be presented in this connexion, which, whilst it may render the conveyance of granite more profitable to the carriers, will introduce a class of freight, consisting of produce of light weight, and comparatively inferior value, which is at present driven from the road by the neceessarily high rates which are charged. Hay and blades, and such like bulky but light articles, of small cost, which are now raised in large quantities along the line, and which would be much increased if they could be sent to market at a moderate cost, and after awhile make us independent of northern supplies, might thus be introduced. The price of carrying hay from Richland cannot under present circumstances be reduced with propriety, and yet the minium rate be now 20 cents per 100 pounds, which is about 50 per cent. of the value of the hay as it lies in the fields, is sufficiently onerous to drive such freight from the road.

On the iron of the South Carolina Railroad, it would not, probably, be prudent to run cars laden with granite slabs to the extent of more than a foot or two from the floors of the cars, and the vacant space above these layers might be advantageously appropriated to this description of light freight. With these views we have formed the estimate that granite from Columbia, at $2 per ton, will pay the Company at least as well as cotton from Hamburg at 50 cents per bale. We have entered into this calculation in anticipation of the doubts and difficulties which will be set up by the thousand croakers amongst us, who are ever ready to predict the failure of any enterprise that is proposed or started in the state. We must repudiate and disgrace this contemptible class of moping wiseacres by falsifying their solemn forebodings in the displays and results of energetic movements. Whatever any other people can do, we can do in South Carolina. We are not wanting in any of the elements of enterprise, but the disposition to engage in them is unfortunately lacking. A stupid and vicious public opinion has heretofore tended to push our young men into the learned professions, or the proprietorship of planting interests, as the only avenues to honorable success in life, and in consequence we have but few of those intellectual, well-educated, scientific mechanics growing up around us, who are necessary to give impulse to our resources.

But a beginning has been made. Already are the cotton lords of Lowell, who have grown rich on the bounties of the federal government, looking with jealousy and anxiety to the development of Southern skill in the manufacture of cotton. The factories of South Carolina and Georgia now find a ready sale for their fabrics, even in Northern markets, at such prices as enable them to declare good dividends; and if, in this early stage of our experience, we can do so well—well enough to enable the Charleston and Graniteville factories to take the premiums offered at the recent Philadelphia Fair, for the best goods of the descriptions made by those factories respectively—what may we not expect when, by the more general introduction and judicious organization of *slave labor*, the best and cheapest factory labor in the world, we shall manifest the ability which belongs to us to manufacture cotton more cheaply than any other people. Slave labor may be used in the quarrying and working of granite as well as any other. It is a plain and simple business, almost entirely physical in its character, and requiring the exercise of but little intellect, except on the part of the overseers or directors of a quarry—who, of course, should be men of intelligence and inventive genius. Every quarry has its peculiarities, and in each particular instance, mechanical constructions and contrivances, adapted to the location, and often of novel character, will be required. With the aid of a very few experienced quarry laborers, (and these we presume may now be found in or about Columbia, as it is not entirely an unknown mystery there—the Charlotte Railroad Company having erected some of their small bridges near the town of quarried granite,) a competent foreman could drill a large force of white or black laborers in a very short time. Even the whiskey-drinking, potatoe-raising, charcoal burning Sand-hillers, have quite intellect enough for the delightful employment of hammering granite, and if in this way they can be induced to "do the State some service," it will be a matter of profound congratulation. Now let us see what our competitors can do in the way of freight, and how they are circumstanced with regard to quarry labor. Careful inquiry as to the cost of bringing granite to Charleston results in the belief, that the freight of it from Boston, or from the shipping point, (which at Quincy is nearer to the quarries than at any other locations we know of,) including the cost of cartage or truckage from the depot to the vessel, cannot be contracted for at less than $2½ per ton.

This difference alone, of fifty cents per ton, would amount, in the quantity necessary for the new Custom House, to nearly or quite ten thousand dollars, whilst the additional expense of transportation from the Northern quarries to those points of shipment, would constitute in effect, by just so much as its amount, an additional bonus to the quarries here. The expense, to the Quincy quarriers, of delivering their stone on shipboard may be more nearly estimated when it is known that it must either be hauled on trucks, by teams of horses, a distance of seven miles to Boston, or be conveyed first by the railroad constructed there, for the purpose of conveying granite, a distance of two and a half miles, to the landing on Milton River, whence it must be carried on lighters a distance of about seven miles to the vessels in Boston harbor. It is now the practice at such of the Quincy quarries as are not owned by the proprietors of the railroad, to haul their granite to Boston on the common roads—the use of the railroad being reserved by the owners of it for the requirements of their own quarries. It is possible, but barely so, and by no means probable, that the freight from some of the Northern shipping points can be had at less than $2,50 per ton; and we may safely venture to assert that under no circumstances can it be done for less than $2 per ton, which latter price will, as we have already intimated, probably be the maximum charge on our railroad for conveying it to the same point. In Massachusetts and the East generally, during a large portion of the year, the intense cold which prevails, and the deep snows which cover the earth, prevent altogether the out-door working of quarrymen, and even with the protection of sheds and enclosures, the pinching temperature incapacitates the workmen to do much more than half work. Here our delightful climate presents no such obstacles to out-door labor.

We remark further, that even white laborers can be subsisted much better and cheaper at the South than in any of the granite-producing Northern states; also, that with a judicious combination of white and black operatives, we are independent of those strikes for higher wages, so common at the North, and which in many cases have been the ruin of large contractors. As to the time of sending our granite down, it may be arranged with reference to the convenience of the Company, and they will thus be enabled to employ their motive power with more regularity the year round, by freighting the stone when there is no press of cotton or other freight. Another item of comparison is found in the difference of cost of suitable sites for quarrying here and at the North. Eligible situations for this business readily command in the Northern states large sums—here immense beds of granite have yet to find purchasers at any price; but we hope the time is at hand when, by the enterprise of some spirited citizen, your holders of granite domains will be waked up some fine morning with the announcement that their now useless possessions are eagerly sought after, and have at length found a place in the world's inventory of things valuable. Granite will find a considerable market in Charleston at all times. Store fronts of this material are now in common use, and are continually called for, besides lintels, door-sills, fence sills, posts, door-steps, *et cetera*, of which a large number may be sold. But to the Custom House we desire again to direct attention, presenting as it does a splendid opportunity of commencing the granite business. It will require an immense quantity of stone, and there will be a sufficient amount of profit, in prospective, to induce men of substance and capacity to embark in the business. In the private letter hereinbefore alluded to, we ventured the following assertions: "We want granite for the new Custom House—I suppose at least $200,000 worth. Here is a chance for some enterprising Richlander to make a fortune of at least $50,000, and still outbid the Northern contractors." These were made at a venture, and based only upon a vague idea of the extent and character of the building; but now, with more definite information before us, we proceed to demonstrate that those hasty guesses are singularly near the truth; at least we shall show this to be the case with regard to the quantity of stone, and we see no reason for abandoning the prediction of profit, provided the matter is taken in hand by energetic and competent persons. Just think of it—every *square foot* of granite worth almost *half a dollar*, in its rough state, after the comparatively trifling work of quarrying it! In our next and final letter, we shall estimate the probable extent of the new Custom House, as nearly as the information at present within our reach will permit an approximation to it.

10. INFLUENCE OF MANUFACTURES ON THE GROWTH OF CITIES.

CANNELTON, INDIANA.—We are indebted to Hamilton Smith, Esq., the distinguished manufacturer of the West, and the man who is doing more at this moment for advancing the manufacturing and general prosperity of this great region than perhaps any other in the nation, for a copy of his most elaborate pamphlet, prepared by request, upon the mineral, coal, and manufacturing facilities of Cannelton, Indiana. We have examined it with much interest, as many of the particulars included have from time to time been presented by the author through our Review, and as there are many more which are deserving of the widest circulation and study. The attention of capitalists in particular should be directed to this quarter, which promises them the most prolific returns. Extensive cotton factories are in construction, and the coal mines are in control of a company who solicit capital. The great mill of which a wood-cut representation is given in the pamphlet is intended for 10,800 spindles and 372 looms; it is 287 feet long and 65 feet wide; towers 106 feet high. The attic (220 feet by 40 feet) is lighted by windows in the gable-ends. Corner-stone laid May 21, 1849.

"This town was first laid out in 1835, and settled by colliers under the supervision of Rhodes and McLane. In 1836 the American Cannel Coal Company was formed, which owes its origin to the late Gen. Seth Hunt, of New-Hampshire; a man whose intelligence was only equalled by the energy of his character, and who, in connection with Messrs. Hobart, Williams and Russell, then wealthy capitalists of Boston, purchased a large tract of land, consisting of about 7000 acres, and made several entries to the coal strata. The capital stock of this company is $500,000. From 400,000 to 500,000 bushels of coal are mined here per annum. The site of this town is on a bend of the Ohio, and embraces over 1000 acres between the river and the coal hills. The landing is very fine. The principal improvements and growth of Cannelton have taken place within the last twelve months. Its population is now somewhere between 1200 and 1500 persons.

"A large first class hotel, containing over seventy sleeping-rooms, is now being constructed, and will be ready for occupation by the last of May. Besides the saw and grist-mill of J. C. Porter & Co., referred to on the map, the cotton-mill company have already in operation a fine steam planing-mill, and connected with the same power, several circular saws, turning-lathes, etc. The establishment of Mr. Z. W. Merrithew, for the manufacture of shaved shingles, is also worthy of notice. A short distance above Castlebury Creek, and upon the bank of the river, Messrs. Ross, Talbott & Co. are erecting a large saw and flouring-mill. Just below the mouth of Dozier Creek Mr. Thomas M. Smith is about building another saw-mill. A building has already been erected by Messrs. Smith & Badger for a foundry, but is not yet in operation. The tin, copper and sheet-iron establishment of J. S. Thayer & Brother is well known to the community. Recently our friend Beacon has commenced the manufacture of brick, and in a short time will be ready to fill all orders in this respect. We have some eight or ten stores of different kinds, and a full supply of professional gentlemen. We have bakers, butchers, shoemakers, tailors and milliners."

We take from the pamphlet the following statistical facts, showing the prodigious advances of manufacturing towns, which should furnish to the people of the South in particular the most salutary lessons. Let us take the old cities of Charleston and Savannah, and ask why they have so long been as it were stationary, while every thing around is in motion? By the introduction of an extensive system of manufactures, it would be easy to advance the population of these cities two-fold in a single decade. We believe their citizens are now beginning to perceive it.

"The causes of the growth of modern cities are the concentration, or assemblage in certain localities, of the materials, or the most useful materials, which afford labor for the hand of industry, and from the products of which the growing wants of mankind are supplied.

"To sustain this position we submit the following concise statements, showing the causes of the growth and progress of the several cities and towns respectively mentioned:

"***Birmingham, England.***—This city in 1801 had a population of 73,670, in 1831 of 146,986, in 1839 an estimated population of 190,000, and at the present time of probably not less than 250,000. Its opulence, celebrity and magnitude are ascribable to the *iron*, *stone* and *coal* with which the district abounds.

"***Bolton, England.***—The rapid growth and prosperity of this town dates from 1770–'80. Its population in 1773 was 5,604; in 1801, 18,583; in 1811, 25,551; in 1821, 32,973; in 1831, 43,397. It is a seat of cotton manufacture, and the birthplace of Arkwright. Its growth is attributed to its command of *coal*, being situated in a coal district.

"***Bradford, England.***—Township consists of 1,680 acres; population in 1801, 6,393; in 1821, 13,064; in 1831, no less than 23,233, and since that period has increased still more rapidly. Its growth is owing to its manufactures, which are facilitated by its unlimited command of *coal* and its abundance of *iron*.

"***Burnley, England.***—Population in 1801, 3,305; in 1821, 6,378; in 184

54,192. A manufacturing town. Cause of growth, abundance and cheapness of *coal* found in the vicinity, with a good supply of free-stone, slate, etc. The town is built mostly of free-stone.

" *Bury*, *England*.—A large manufacturing town, consisting of 4,360 acres. Population in 1821, 13,480; in 1841, 77,496. In the parish of the same name, and which includes this town, are *extensive quarries of building stone*, and *nine wrought coal mines*.

" *Carlisle*, *England*.—A manufacturing town, supplied with coal from places varying from twelve to twenty miles distant. Population in 1801, 10,221; in 1821, 15,486; in 1841, 36,084.

" *Charleroy*.—An important manufacturing town in Belgium, situated in the centre of the great coal basin of Charleroy. In 1836 it had seventy-two mines in active operation, producing 900,000 tons of coal per annum. Iron abounds, and also quarries of marble and slate. Its furnaces give employment to 3,000 men, and during the winter season 4,000 men are employed in making nails. Its coal, iron and stone have made it what it is.

" *Derby*, *England*.—A manufacturing town, with both water-power and coal. Population in 1841, 35,015; in 1811 it was only 13,043.

" *Durham*, *England*.—In 1821 this city had a population of 10,282; in 1831, only 10,520. About this time extensive collieries were opened, and population immediately increased, so that in 1840 the number of its inhabitants was put down at 40,000. Previous to this it was one of the dullest cities in the kingdom. *Stone*, *lime*, *coal* and *iron* abound.

" *Huddersfield*, *England*.—The township consists of 3,950 acres, and had a population in 1801 of 7,268, in 1831 of 19,035. The population of the parish in 1840 was estimated at 40,000. It is one of the principal seats of the woollen manufacture, and stands in the midst of a rich coal field. There is also an ample supply of water-power.

" *Johnston*, *Scotland*.—The rise of this town has been more rapid than any other town in Scotland. The ground on which it stands began, for the first time, to be fued, or let, on building leases, in 1781, when it contained only ten persons. Its population in 1840 is set down at 7,000. Its growth is owing to the introduction of manufactures, it being situated on a fine water-power. It has several foundries and machine-shops, and near the town are four collieries.

" *Leeds*, *England*.—A celebrated manufacturing town, and the great centre of the woollen cloth trade. Population of the *town* in 1831, 71,602. Its eminence is owing partly to its advantageous situation in a fertile country, intersected with rivers, and partly to its possessing inexhaustible beds of coal.

" *Leigh*, *England*.—A manufacturing town, with a population in 1841 of 22,229. In 1834, according to Mr. Baines, upwards of 8,000 persons were employed in spinning and weaving cotton and silk, both by hand and power looms. Its industry and growth is promoted by its abundance of coal and lime.

" *Lowell*, *Massachusetts*.—Population in 1820, 200; at the present time, 35,000. Cause of growth, its great water-power.

" *Lawrence*, *Massachusetts*.—Present population, 7,500. Four or five years ago it was but a school district. Its water-wheels have graded streets, and lined these with splendid edifices on *alluvial* land so poor that it would not average a crop of 15 bushels of corn to the acre without artificial enrichment.

" *Manchester*, *New-Hampshire*, in 1835 was a small hamlet; in 1840 a few mills had increased its population to about 3,000; it is said to contain now about 17,000 souls. Although it is in a hilly and barren country, and receives its materials and sends its products over about sixty miles of rail-road, it is still growing with rapidity, because it has the motive-power of the Merrimac.

" *Manchester*, *England*.—The great centre of the cotton manufacture in Great Britain, and the principal manufacturing town in the world. Manchester and Salford are separated by the small river Irwell, and form one town, covering 3,000 acres. The population of the town and suburbs, including Salford, in 1801, was 95,313; in 1831, 239,388; and in 1841 was estimated at 360,000. Manufacturing has made Manchester. The steam engine, with other improved machines for working up cotton, have made its manufactures, and the coal from the inexhastible coal-field, on the edge of which the city is situated, has fed the engine. Hence the modern growth of Manchester is ascribable to its coal.

" *Merthyr-Tydvil*, *S. Wales*.—Population 27,460 in 1831; in 1841, 34,977. It is remarkable for its iron works, and is wholly indebted for its prosperity to its rich mines of coal, iron ore and lime-stone. Towards the middle of the last century it was an insignificant village, and in 1755 the lands and mines for several miles around the village, the seat of the great works now erected, were let for ninety-nine years for £200 a year.

"*Newcastle-upon-Tyne.*—Population in 1831, 53,613; in 1841 estimated at 65,000. It owes its importance, if not its existence, to its convenient situation as a place of shipment for the coal wrought in its neighborhood.

"*Pittsburg, Pennsylvania.*—The population of Pittsburg for each decennary period from 1800 was 1,565, 4,768, 7,248, 12,542, 21,115. With its dependences it has a present population of about 100,000; and although it has lost the greater part of its transportation and commercial business, it is now growing more rapidly than ever. The copper ore of Lake Superior, the lead of Illinois, the wheat of Michigan, the cotton of Tennessee, and even the iron and sand of Missouri, are transported to and combined by the power that lies in the Pittsburg coal.

"*Oldham, England.*—A large manufacturing town, chiefly cotton. Population in 1841, 42,595. In 1760 it comprised only about sixty thatched tenements. In 1839 it had two hundred manufactories, set in motion by a steam-power equal to 2,942 horses, and employing 15,391 hands. It has an abundant and immediate supply of excellent coal.

"*Rochester, New-York.*—Population in 1820, 1,502; in 1830, 9,269; in 1840, 20,191. It owes its great advantages and rapid growth to its vast water-power, created by the falls in the Genesee river.

"*Sheffield, England.*—Noted for its hardware, cutlery, etc. Population of the parish in 1801, 45,755; in 1831, 91,692; and in 1841, 110,801. Its manufactures are extensive, and known the world over. Coal and iron have made the city.

"*Wolverhampton, England.*—This town, or rather the district including the town, comprises 16,630 acres. Its population in 1831 was 67,514. In 1841 the population of the town alone was 36,189. Wolverhampton, and the places in its vicinity, owe their rapid rise to the mines of coal and iron-stone.

"Other illustrations, such as Pottsville, Cumberland, Wheeling, Pomeroy, etc., might be adduced, but those already given are believed to be sufficient to indicate the tendency of men at the present time to cluster around and to build their homes in such localities as afford them the great staples and materials upon which they may bestow their labor, and for which they may receive the largest rates of compensation."

Cannelton Economist.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

SOUTHERN COMMERCE AS INFLUENCED BY THE GULF STREAM.

At a late meeting of the Scientific Association, held at Charleston, S. C., Lieut. Maury read a paper upon the influences the discovery of the Gulf Stream has had upon the commerce of that city, which is so able and interesting, that we need no apology in presenting it to our readers.

"Lieut. Maury said, that before the Gulf Stream was known to practical navigators, the course of trade between England and America was such, as to make Charleston the half-way house between the mother country and the New England States, including Pennsylvania and New-York.

"At that time, the usual route of vessels bound to America was to run down on the other side towards the Cape de Verdes, and until they got the N. E. trades, and with them to steer for America. This route brought them upon the coast of the Southern States, where their first landfall was generally made. Then steering to the northward, they drifted along until they made the Capes of the Delaware, or other headlands to the North.

"If now, as it often happened in the winter season, they were driven off the co by snow storms and westerly gales, instead of running off into the Gulf stream, as vessels now do to thaw themselves, they stood back to Charleston or the West Indies, where they would spend the winter, and wait until the spring before making another attempt.

"It should be borne in mind that vessels then were not the sea boats or the sailers they now are. Lieut. Maury had the log-book of a West India trader in 1746. Her average rate of sailing, per log, was one mile the hour.

"The instruments of navigation were rude, chronometers were unknown, and lunars were impracticable, and it was no uncommon thing for vessels in those days, when crossing the Atlantic, to be out of their reckoning 5°, 6°, and even 10°. And when it was announced that a vessel might know by consulting the water thermometer, when she crossed the eastern edge of the Gulf stream, and again when she crossed the western edge, navigators likened the discovery to the drawing of blue and red streaks in the water, by which, when the mariner crossed, then he might know his longitude.

"The merchants of Providence, R. I., Dr. FRANKLIN being in London, sent a petition to the Lords of the Treasury, asking that the Falmouth packets might run to Providence instead of to Boston; they maintained that though Boston and Falmouth were between Providence and London, yet that practically the two former were further apart, for they showed that the average passage of the London traders to Providence was fourteen days less than the packet line from Falmouth to Boston.

"Dr FRANKLIN, on being questioned as to this fact, consulted an old New-England Captain, who had been a whaler, and who informed the Doctor, that the London traders to Providence were commanded for the most part by New-England fishermen, who knew how to avoid the Gulf stream, while the Falmouth packets were commanded by Englishmen who knew nothing about it.

"These two drew a chart, which was published at the Tower, and the Gulf stream, as laid down there by that Yankee whaler, has been preserved upon our charts until within a few years.

"At the time that Dr. FRANKLIN made it known how navigators, simply by dipping a thermometer in the water, might know when they entered, and when they cleared the Gulf stream, Charleston had more commerce than New-York, and all the New-England States put together.

"This discovery changed the route across the Atlantic, shortened the passage from sixty to thirty days, coming this way, and consequently changed the course of trade also.

"Instead of calling by Charleston as they came from England, vessels went direct to the port of their destination; instead of running down to Charleston to avoid a New-England snow storm, they stood off for a few hours, until they reached the tepid waters of the Gulf stream, in the genial warmth of which the crew recovered their energies, and as soon as the gale abated they were ready for another attempt to make their haven.

"In this way the northern ports became the half-way-house, and Charleston an outside station.

"This revolution in the course of trade commenced about 1795. It worked slowly at first, but in 1816–17, it received a fresh impulse from Jeremiah Thompson, Isaac Wright and others, who conceived the idea of establishing a line of packets between New-York and Liverpool. This was at a period when the scales of commercial ascendancy were vibrating between New-York, Boston, Philadelphia and other places. The packet ships of the staid New-York quaker turned the balance. Though only of 300 tons burden, and sailing but once a month, they had their regular day of departure, and the merchants of Charleston, Philadelphia, etc., found it convenient to avail themselves of this regular and stated channel for communicating with their agents in England, ordering goods, etc. Those packets went on increasing in numbers and size until now; at the present day we have them building of 2000 tons, sailing every day, and running between New-York and every fifth-rate sea-port town in the United States, and to many foreign ports.

"Thus an impulse was given to the prosperity of New-York; one enterprise begat another, until that city became the great commercial emporium and centre of exchange of the new world; and all these results are traceable to the use of the water-thermometer at sea.

"Other causes, doubtless, have operated to take away from Charleston her relative commercial importance—but the primary cause was that discovery which removed Charleston from the way-side of commerce with Europe, and which placed her on the outskirts of the great commercial thoroughfares, and away from the situation which she occupied.

"In consequence of the improvement since made in navigation, ship building, etc., Lieut. Maury, remarked that a ship could now go from New-York to New-England, and back, in less time than, when Charleston was the half-way house, she could get to Charleston from London.

"He therefore submitted whether this fact were not sufficient to turn the scales of commerce, and he claimed the fact to be due to the influence of the Gulf stream upon the course of trade, and the water-thermometer was the key to it all."

2. TRADE WITH CHINA.

The opening of the gold mines of California, and the constant intercourse between the United States and the North Pacific, consequent upon the emigration of an immense number of our citizens to that territory, leads us to inquire with more than ordinary interest into the condition of the trade of that part of the world, and among the countries which attract attention, China is the most prominent. The projected lines of communication between the United States and North Pacific, one or the other of which must, at no very distant day, be commenced, will, in point of time, greatly reduce the distance between the United States and the Celestial Empire, and thereby afford to our citizens superior facilities for commencing and carrying on with the Celestials a most important traffic. The opening of this trade would tend to stimulate the Chinese to cultivate intercourse with our country, as it also would to relieve them from that odious traffic, to which we may say they are now in bondage —the opium trade. This has been forced upon them by British India, and it is continued only because, compared with England, China is the weaker vessel. The latter would not willingly submit to a traffic which has such a baneful effect upon the interests of their whole Empire. Increased intercourse with the United States would tend to relieve the Chinese from this odious business, this system of robbery, by which one hundred million of people are enslaved for the profit of a few noble families in England. It will be the interest of the people of the United States to use all honorable means to abolish this traffic, as we can never expect to introduce our manufactures into China to any extent so long as England, with opium in one hand and the sword in the other, compels the Chinese to purchase that which keeps their markets in a state of continued depression by reason of the constant and enormous drain of specie for which no return is made except in that which reduces the moral condition of the people to that of the beast, and even lower.

This opium trade with China commenced in 1774, when England succeeded in stationing an opium ship at Whampoa, but the trade did not flourish much till 1821, when Linton Island became the chief market for the sale of the drug. About that time from three thousand to four thousand chests were sold per annum, worth some three million dollars, and in the next year (1822) the amount rose to twelve thousand chests per annum, and increased to forty thousand chests in 1847, when the trade produced war. In the conflict the Chinese were defeated, and since the peace the trade has continued to increase, and in 1849 there were consumed forty-nine thousand chests, for which forty million of dollars in pure silver was paid. The following is an official statement of this business for the last twenty-seven years.

	Chests per annum.	Aggregate value.
Up to 1822,	3,500	$10,000,000
1832 to 1833,	12,000	72,000,000
1833 to 1839,	30,000	108,000,000
1829 to 1843,	war indemnity,	21,000,000
1840 to 1849,	45,138	108,579,600
	Total,	$319,579,600

The increase in the consumption of the drug in the last ten years, it is seen, has been very great; and although there has also been an increase in the exports of Chinese produce, yet the export of the precious metals in the adjustment of the balance adverse to China, has reached the annual sum of ten millions of dollars. Previous to the traffic in this pernicious drug, China was the recipient of the precious metals from the Western country, in adjustment of the balance in her favor. The opium traffic is not the only obstacle which England has thrown in the way to keep in a state of depression the Chinese Empire. She has imposed upon the tea imported into the United Kingdom an enormous tax, amounting to nearly three times the value of the article itself. Under such a load of taxation it is impossible for the tea trade to expand. In 1847, the value of the tea exported from China was £2,749,577, and the duty paid on tea in the United Kingdom the same year was £5,067,042. In 1848, the exports of tea from China amounted to £1,909,000, and the duties paid in the United Kingdom to £5,310,527. Thus it is seen that the Chinese have to contend at home against the demoralizing effects of the opium traffic, forced upon them by England, while at the same time their commerce with England is depressed by the enormous tax placed upon their products for the purpose of sustaining an exhausted and sinking treasury. It is easy to see, therefore, that in carrying on a trade with China, the United States would have none of those prejudices naturally arising from the present and past relations of China and England to overcome.

If, therefore, the trade of British India could be revolutionized, and the constant drain of specie from China, by which the country is impoverished, stopped, we might find among the numerous people of the Celestial Empire an important market for our manufactures. This, however, we can hardly expect unless other nations support the Chinese in enforcing their own laws on their own territories. This will doubtless be the case, for it is hardly possible that such extortion could be carried on without attracting the attention and inducing the interference of rival Governments. A brief account of the manner of raising the opium will show how the producers, as well as the consumers, are imposed upon. The plan is this: All the lands are surveyed and marked every year; the farmers are then required to cultivate poppy. When the plant is nearly ripe the native officer of each village, appointed by the English Indian Government, makes a circuit and estimates the yield of opium. The farmer is then compelled to deliver the quantity estimatad at the price fixed by the English Indian Governor. If he fails to cultivate poppy, or deliver the estimate, his property is subject to confiscation and himself to exile. The Government agents are also always so far in advance to their farmers, that as debtors they are doubly slaves. The chests thus obtained cost the Government three hundred rupees, say $136 each, and then the Government sells in Calcutta, to the opium merchants, at an average of fourteen hundred rupees, $369 each, being a profit of $493 per chest. This on 40,000 chests, gives a net revenue of $17,320,000 per annum. They also draw a tax of $150 per chest on 20,000 chests per annum, and the officers of the Government admit that without it the Government could not be carried on.

3. CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES.—JANUARY

	1848.	1849.	1850.
Number of banks and branches,	751	782	829
Capital paid in,	$204,833,175	$207,309,361	$217,317,211
RESOURCES.			
Loans and discounts,	344,476,582	332,333,195	364,204,078
Stocks,	26,498,054	23,571,575	20,006,759
Real estate,	20,530,955	17,491,809	20,582,166
Other investments,	8,229,682	7,965,463	11,949,548
Due by other banks,	38,904,525	33,258,407	41,631,855
Notes of other banks,	16,426,716	12,708,016	17,303,239
Specie Funds,	10,409,822	8,680,483	11,003,245
Specie,	46,369,765	43,619,308	45,379,345
LIABILITIES.			
Circulation,	128,506,091	114,742,415	131,306,526
Deposits,	103,226,177	91,178,623	100,536,595
Due to other banks,	39,414,371	30,005,366	36,717,451
Other liabilities,	5,501,401	6,706,357	8,835,359
Total of current credits, i. e , circulation and deposits,	231,732,268	205,922,038	210,953,121
Total of immediate liabilities, i. e., circulations, deposits and sums due to other banks,	217,146,639	236,017,404	277,670,572
Total of immediate means, i. e., specie, specie funds, notes of other banks, and sums due to other banks,	112,191,828	98,236,274	114,917,778
Excess of immediate liabilities above immediate means,	158,954,811	137,781,130	162,752,794

SPECIE IN THE BANKS, CIRCULATION AND DEPOSITS.

	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Total of current credits.
1834, -		$94,839,570	$75,666,986	$170,503,556
1835, - -	$43,937,625	100,602,405	83,034,365	131,773,860
1836, -	40,019,594	140,301,038	115,104,420	276,495,478
1837, - -	37,915,340	149,135,190	127,397,185	276,533,075
1838, -	35,184,112	116,138,910	84,691,184	200,830,694
1839, - -	45,132,673	135,170,995	90,240,146	225,411,141
1840, -	33,165,155	106,968,572	75,696,857	182,665,439
1841, - -	34,818,913	107,290,214	64,890,101	172,180,315
1842, -	28,440,423	83,734.011	62,498,870	146,142,881
1843, - -	33,515,806	58,563,603	56,163,623	114,732,231
1844, -	49,898,269	75,167,646	84,550,785	159,718,431
1845, - -	44,241,242	89,608,711	83,020,646	177,629,357
1846, -	42,012.095	105,552,427	97,918,070	202,465,497
1847, - -	35,132,516	105,519,766	91,792,533	197,312,299
1848, -	46,369,765	128,596,091	108,226,177	281,732,263
1849, - -	43,619,363	114,743,415	91,178,623	205,922,033
1850, -	45,379,345	131,366,526	109,586,595	240,953,121

In May, 1837, the banks suspended specie payments. In May, 1838, the New-York banks resumed specie payments, and the other banks attempted to follow their example, so that by January, 1839, there was what was called a general resumption of specie payments, though in many parts of the Union this was merely nominal.

In October, 1839, the banks of Philadelphia again suspended specie payments, and were imitated by the banks of the South and West.

Specie payments were not fairly resumed by the banks of Philadelphia till March, 1842. The banks of the South and West imitated their example; but in September, 1842, there was a tremendous bank convulsion at New-Orleans, the effects of which were felt throughout the country. The consequence was, that by the 1st of June, 1843, the current credits of the banks were reduced to a very small amount. They continued small till May, 1843, when an expansion began, which was at first very gradual.

The great increase in the amount of specie and bank credits in 1848 over 1847, was in consequence of the demand for our breadstuffs in Europe.

In January last, the circulation of the banks was greater than it had been in any previous years, excepting 1834, 1837 and 1839; and the year 1839 may be left out of the comparison, as in the returns for that year are included many banks which did not pay specie.

In January, 1850, the banks were more expanded than they were in January, 1848.

The small amount in which the specie in the vaults of the banks varies, when compared with the amount of their circulation and deposits, is not unworthy of observation.

The greatest amount of specie in the banks was in 1844, when it was $49,898,269. The smallest was in 1842, when it was $28,440,423. Difference, $21,457,846.

The circulation was lowest in 1843, when it was $58,563,608; and highest in 1837, when it was $149,185,190. Difference, $90,621,582.

The deposits were lowest in 1843, when they were $56,168,623; and highest in 1837, when they were $127,397,185. Difference, $71,228,562.

The current credits were greatest in 1837, when they were $276,583,075; smallest in 1843 when they were $114,732,231. Difference, $161,850,844.

4. WESTERN STEAMERS IN 1819.

The following extract from the journal of a gentleman who was engaged in the New-Orleans trade thirty-one years ago (politely furnished for publication in the Democrat) may form the basis of an interesting comparison between the boats' tonnage and business of that early day and those of the present time. It will be found useful for future reference:

"In looking over the journal of my peregrinations through the Mississippi valley in my early days, I find under date of August 6th, 1819, and taken from a leans paper of August 1st, the following list of steamboats which had been licensed and enrolled at the Custom House, New-Orleans:

Names of Boats.	Tons.	Names of Boats.	Tons.
Rising States	221	James Ross	270
Ætna	361	Kentucky	112
Alabama	319	Louisiana	103
Buffalo	249	Maysville	209
Constitution	113	Napoleon	316
Cincinnati	157	Newport	60
Eagle	118	Ohio	364
Exchange	212	Ramage	146
Franklin	132	Tamerlane	307
Frankfort	286	Vesuvius	390
George Madison	198	Vesta	203
Gov. Shelby	106	Volcano	217
Gen. Jackson	143	Washington	403
Harriet	54	Maid of Orleans	393
Henderson	123	Rifleman	31
Hecla	124	St. Louis	200
James Monroe	140	Columbus	450
Johnson	140	Paragon	500
Total number of boats	36.	Total tonnage	7,770

"The journal continues: 'There are a number of other steamboats running on the Ohio, Mississippi above the mouth of the Ohio, the Illinois, and Mississippi rivers, which never have been enrolled and licensed in New-Orleans.

"'The steamboat St. Louis was built in Baltimore, is rigged schooner fashion, and is considered a very fine boat.'

"'December 5th, 1820.—In addition to my list of steamboats, I will now add the names of a few more, which have been built since that date, viz: Mississippi, Tennessee, United States, Cumberland, Arkansas, Post Boy, Feliciana, Fayette, Gen. Robertson, Lightning Fly.'

"The tonnage of the above boats is not given, except that of the United States, which was seven hundred tons.

"I quote one passage more from my old journal:

"'December 1st, 1820.—Took passage on steamboat Mississippi for New-Orleans, (from Natchez,) passage $15. Arrived at New-Orleans December 5th, with eight hundred bales of cotton, and the weight of three hundred more, equal to one hundred and twenty tons. This is her second trip. She cost $80,000.'

"Fast travelling, and cheap!

"Should the above extracts be permitted to occupy a corner of your weekly journal, some of our river men, who have not access to old records, may think them worth preserving. ELIAS HIBBARD.

"Upper Alton, August 13, 1850."

5. PROSPECTIVE COMMERCE WITH JAPAN.

Much has been said and written of late in reference to a commercial mission to the East, and the possibility of opening to our commerce the closed gates of the great empire of Japan. The English appeared also to be alive to the subject, and a writer in the United Service Magazine has presented a variety of striking facts and suggestions for their consideration:

"Many of our readers may possibly have forgotten the history of European dealing with Japan; we will, therefore, commence what we have to say, by sketching briefly what was done in former times, because, latterly, scarcely anything worthy to be related has happened. The Portuguese were the first European adventurers who opened a trade with the Japanese Empire, and they reaped a golden harvest by their boldness. Arriving when the minds of the people were fresh, when there was industry and great enterprise in the country, when the culture of the soil was carried to a high degree of perfection, and when the Japanese vessels threaded all the channels of the Indian Archipelago as far as the western extremity of Java and the Malacca Straits; they were received with open arms, allowed to settle in the country, and encouraged to carry on the freest intercourse with the inhabitants; Jesuit missionaries flocked to all the islands, made numerous converts, especially among the women, and the Japanese seemed to be on the point of passing in a body under the spiritual dominion of the Pope.

"Incredible stories are related of the riches acquired by these early adventurers. Large ships laden with gold are said to have passed constantly from Jeddo to Macao, which certainly owed much of its magnificence to this commerce, but even the most extraordinary gain will not always satisfy an ambitious people. What they had attained they counted as nothing, compared with what was unattained. They therefore projected the conquest of the whole empire, and, in order to facilitate the execution of their design, pushed on the work of conversion with redoubled vigor, judging correctly that the Christian converts would, in case of an armed struggle, be likely to side with them.

"While things were in this position, the English and Dutch made their appearance on the coast, and were viewed with the fiercest jealousy by the Portuguese, who seemed to have some mysterious intimation of what was afterwards to happen. To the public authorities, therefore, they spoke of the English and Dutch as pirates, in which they were not very far from the truth, and the appellation might with still greater propriety have been applied to themselves. But the energy of our countrymen was not thus to be quenched. They insinuated themselves into the favor of the emperor by building him ships, and scattering the seeds of civilization among his subjects. One factory after another was set up, a profitable trade was carried on, and treaties of peace and amity were concluded between the Emperor and the King of England. But James the first, then on the throne, was not the prince to encourage trade, and recommend us to a foreign people. His feeble government made no efforts to derive advantage from our alliance with Japan. The factories were neglected, the merchants left without protection, and ultimately all intercourse between the two countries was suspended without any intelligible pretext.

"Our inertness only served to excite the boldness and enterprise of the Dutch, whose proceedings at that period displayed all the chivalrous daring of democracy. But it must not be denied that they were as unscrupulous as they were bold. When the question was, whether they should run the risk of losing the Japanese trade, or coöperate with the imperial authorities in effecting the expulsion of the Portuguese and the extinction of Christianity, they do not appear to have hesitated for a moment. For a short time they enjoyed the reward of their iniquity, but by degrees their allies came to entertain suspicions of them also, and having circumscribed their dealings from time to time, at length shut them up as prisoners on the little artificial island of Dezuna, in Nangasaki Bay.

"A regulation was then passed, according to which the Dutch were permitted to send to Japan no more than two ships a year, while to the merchants of the Celestial empire the privilege was accorded of introducing four junks.

"From that time to the present, Japan may be said to have virtually secluded itself from the great family of mankind.

"Several journals endeavored a few years ago to prevail on the British government to send out ambassadors on a commercial mission to Jedo, and we believe we are quite correct in stating that ministers were strongly inclined to act upon the suggestion of the press. The history of that movement in favor of trade is so interesting, that our readers will, we feel assured, excuse us if we devote a few words to it. One of our daily journals, having maturely considered the question, put forth a leading article on the subject, strongly urging the necessity of sending out a commercial mission, and showing on what scale it ought to be organized. Two or three days afterwards another daily journal took up the subject, though slightly, and in a mere paragraph. The original mover turned to the charge, and in article after article investigated, explained, and developed the subject. This touched our Dutch neighbors too nearly to allow of their passing over the matter in silence. Accordingly the journals of Holland entered upon it in an angry and declamatory manner, and were immediately followed by those of Germany, some of which took the English, and some the Dutch side. Next the French came into the field; and here again there was a division of opinion, for while the more respectable adopted the view and idea of the British press, the inferior ones echoed the accusations of Holland against Great Britain.

"Presently the American journals joined eagerly in the discussion, the nature of Japanese commerce, and pointed out to the merchants of the republic how many and great would be the advantages of opening up a trade with Japan. From various sources they collected new information respecting the productions of this distant part of Asia, and, by an ingenious mixture of statement and speculation, imparted a peculiar interest to their articles. Nor did the excitement stop here: all the leading journals in our Indian Empire took part in the discussion, as well as those of Singapore and Hong Kong; and all, we believe, without exception, adopted the views of the *Morning Chronicle*, with which the idea had originated. But unfortunately the newspapers published in our Asiatic dominions exercise little influence in Europe, through that unaccountable apathy which induces the people of this country, as well as of the continent, almost entirely to neglect the affairs of the East.

"Still the exertions of the press were not without their consequences. The United States, always alive to whatever concerns the interest of trade, despatched two ships of war to Jedo, under the command of Commodore Biddle, with instructions to overcome, if possible, the reluctance of the Japanese government to open general relations with the states of Christendom. As a rule, the envoys of our transatlantic brethren are too able and energetic to be foiled in their attempts when these are directed by prudence towards a just aim. In fact the diplomatists of America, distinguished for their tact and integrity, have in nearly all parts of the world beheld their conscientious labors crowned with success. With Commodore Biddle the case was different. He had not, probably, been selected with reference to that special case, and failed more through ignorance of the people with whom he had to deal than through any absence of a natural talent for business.

"Whatever may have been the cause, his mission was unsuccessful, and at the conclusion of it, the reciprocal feelings of the Americans and Japanese were less friendly than at its commencement.

"Almost at the same time the French, under Admiral Cecille, who had made himself advantageously known on the Chinese coast, undertook the part of rival diplomatist to the American commodore. The French commander enjoyed the advantage of possessing in the present bishop of Hong Kong an interpreter of no ordinary abilities, so that the mission was not compelled to trust entirely to those Dutch or native interpreters who so frequently misrepresent to the Japanese authorities the wishes and expectations of European visitors. In spite, however, of these advantages, Admiral Cecille's enterprise met with precisely the same fate as Commodore Biddle's. The Japanese refused to surrender their prejudices to the commercial logic of Europe, for reasons which we shall presently explain. Consequently the French quitted the shores of Japan, with feelings no less irritated than those of the United States' officers; and it now remains therefore for Great Britain to make her appearance in a becoming manner on the scene.

"It appears, therefore, perfectly credible that the population of Japan should be very great, rather over perhaps than under forty millions. It has further been ascertained beyond dispute, that these people are fond of dress, ornaments and show of all kinds, and would purchase European manufactures to the extent of their means. Some perhaps may point to China, as an illustration of the fallacy of our commercial hopes, since we, some years ago, confidently reckoned on having to supply a hundred and fifty millions of people with British manufactures. Whereas, experience has taught us, that a very small part indeed of that vast population receives its articles of use or luxury from us. But is this fact owing to the distaste of the people for our manufactures, or to the arbitrary interference of their rulers? The Chinese, though deeply prejudiced against our countrymen, would yet, if left entirely to themselves, become very large purchasers of European goods. But they trade in fetters. A mandarian's fan paralyses the capital and the desires of a whole province, and we shall probably have to struggle for many years to come against a host of follies and prejudices, for the present invincible.

"Should the same obstacles be encountered in Japan, the trade there also would be of slow growth, but from all the circumstances which have come to our knowledge, and they are not a few, we are inclined to augur a very different result. Instead of hating us with a stupid hatred, like the Chinese, the people of Japan evince a decided partiality for us, especially since they have become disgusted with the phlegmatic cunning and insatiable avarice of the Dutch. During the visit of the 'Samarang,' the inhabitants of Nangasaki and its environs displayed a wonderful eagerness to enter into commercial dealings with the English, and several of the public functionaries distinctly expressed their belief that it would require very little exertion on the part of our government to prevail on the court of Jedo to renew commercial relations. With an affectation of simplicity, which did not altogether impose on the British commander, they pretended to be ignorant of the reasons which have kept up the estrangement between the English and the Japanese. If they referred to the causes which led to the original suspension of trade between the two countries, they might well enough be perplexed to discover what they were, since they are probably not sufficiently well versed in our history to remember the listless apathy of the first two Stuarts, with the internal struggles which arose out of it. We were not driven out of Japan. On the contrary, our departure was regretted, but our minds were too much taken up with interets nearer home to think of the value of that distant market.

"However, the great question now is, not how we came to lose the trade of Japan, but how we may best recover it? No attention whatever should be paid to the representations of the Dutch, who lie systematically whenever they can hope to derive the slightest advantage from their falsehood. They maintain and it is their interest to maintain, that the Japanese government views the power of England in the east with as much apprehension and jealousy as the Chinese themselves, and if pushed by us would as peremptorily as ever refuse to renew commercial relations with us. That they should be uneasy at our progress in Asia is intelligible enough; but their very terrors would induce them to consent to an amicable commerce rather than provoke hostilities. We have proved, at least to our own satisfaction, that we should be justified in compelling the Japanese to relinquish their exclusive system; but at the same time we are thoroughly convinced that there would be no necessity for applying force, since both the authorities and the people have given the most unequivocal tokens of a desire to trade with us.

"But some ingenious sophists have objected that Japan is prevented by its natural poverty from becoming an advantageous market for our goods, for which they affirm it has nothing to give us in exchange. But whoever argues thus, can be but imperfectly acquainted with the productions and resources of the Japanese empire, which, though the people have for centuries been kept in artificial poverty, are greater than those of China in proportion to the extent of the two countries.

"We have already alluded to the gold mines of Japan, which, if properly worked, would make it another California on a vast scale. At present the unwise laws of the country almost entirely prevent the opening up of this source of wealth. In all such mines two-thirds of the produce are claimed by the emperor, though, as has been very *naively* remarked, the one-third of the private proprietors generally very greatly exceeds the emperor's two-thirds. But when capital and industry have no resource but in fraud, they can display no great energy. Besides, the fear sometimes seizes on the court that the springs of gold will speedily run dry in Japan, which, according to their ideas of political economy, would altogether impoverish the country and ruin the state. They imagine that gold, though hidden in the earth, exercises some magic influences over the destinies of a nation, and that they never can be considered poor while it is possible for them to obtain that precious metal by digging. What the wealth of the gold mines may be, cannot be ascertained at present, but there seems to be no reason to doubt, that should we succeed in opening up a trade with the islands, the people for some time to come would pay very largely for our manufactures in specie.

"Superior, even in importance to the gold, is the copper of Japan, the supply of which appears to be altogether inexhaustible. In quality it is confessedly the finest in the world, and the Dutch are careful to take a large portion of it in payment for their goods. Some years ago considerable opposition was made to the attempt at opening the Japanese trade, from the owners of mines in Cornwall; but a more intimate acquaintance with the doctrines of political economy would now seem to have silenced that clamor.

"Silver and iron are likewise produced in abundance in several islands of the group, but of all its mineral substances, none can be compared for importance with coal—if coal be indeed a mineral. The coal mines of Borneo have already conferred a double value on that part of the Archipelago, and if beyond its utmost limits towards the north-east, we could command an inexhaustible supply of this material, it would greatly facilitate the development of the riches of that part of the globe. It must be confessed, however, that our information respecting the Japanese coal is hitherto extremely imperfect, though there appears to be no reason at all for doubting that whatever may be its quality, it exists in great abundance in the coun product of the Japanese Islands, which all will consider to be of the highest value, is cotton. The people of British India want either capital or enterprise, or both, and therefore neglect the growing of cotton, for all the superior kinds of which we are entirely dependent on the United States. Were we in possession of a trade with Japan, we should soon be able to obtain a large supply of cotton from thence. Respecting its staple, whether long or short, and its quality, whether fine or coarse, we are hitherto very much in the dark, since we possess no report made by any competent persons on the subject. Still it cannot be doubted that, if encouraged by a steady demand, the Japanese would make the most of the capabilities of their soil and climate, and send the best possible article into the market.

"The silk of Japan has long been celebrated throughout the world, though often produced under circumstances the most discouraging. The little now exported finds its way to Java, where it is worn by the native chiefs and the wealthy Dutch officials. Occasionally some few pieces are brought to Holland, where they are regarded rather as curiosities than as merchandise. Supposing the trade opened, the silk dressing-gowns of Japan would no doubt become a considerable article of export. They may perhaps be regarded as the most extraordinary article of dress in the world, being from an inch to an inch and a half thick, which suggests the idea of immense weight, though in reality they feel, when worn, as light as a gossamer. The thickness is produced by wadding composed of some substance so fine and delicate that, like the 'woven wind' of the ancients, its separate fibres are almost invisible.

"We must not, in this slight sketch of Japanese exports, omit the tea, the costlier kinds of which are, on all hands, admitted to be more richly flavored than those of China. Very few specimens have for the last two hundred years appeared in the English market, and these, at the India-House sales, have brought from fifty to sixty shillings a pound. In all likelihood, however, these were not by any means the finest specimens, since what are called in the island imperial teas are consumed almost exclusively by the princes and nobles. Strange stories are related of the means of producing this courtly beverage, and there is probably in all of them no small admixture of the fabulous; still, as they are characteristic of Japanese manners and ideas, our readers may not dislike to be presented with a sample.

"The tea-shrubs intended for the use of the imperial court are grown on a mountain near Meaco; that is, in the district supposed to be the most favorable in the world to the production of this article. This mountain is fenced round from vulgar intrusion by a ditch and thick hedge, and none but those employed in the cultivation of the tea are permitted to enter. The shrubs are laid out so as to form avenues, which are daily swept and kept scrupulously clean.

"So far the precautions taken are intelligible; but in much of what follows the reader will detect the influence of an oriental and imperial imagination. The young leaves, which begin to put forth about the first of March, which commences the Japanese year, are gathered when only a few days old; that is, in their most tender and delicate state. The persons employed in collecting them are subjected, under the most rigid inspection, to a curious regimen and discipline. During the operation they must not eat fish, or any other article of food likely to affect their breath. They are next compelled to bathe twice or thrice a day, and after all are not permitted to touch the leaves with their hands; they therefore work in gloves; and the delicate green treasure, when collected, is deposited in cornets of white paper, till subjected to the drying process, analogous to that employed in China. Into an account of this, it would be beside our pretent purpose to enter; but we may mention that there are three gatherings of the tea-leaf—the first, which takes place, as we have said, early in March; the second at the end of the same month, or in the beginning of April; and the third in the beginning of May, when the leaves are two months old. This last gathering produces the coarsest kind of tea, appropriated to the use of the humbler classes.

"The cultivation of this delicate shrub is conducted among the Japanese upon principles somewhat different from those that regulate its growth in China. It is not commonly laid out in distinct plantations, but in lines, which serve as hedges between the corn and rice fields. The seeds are thinly sown in drills, four or five inches deep, and when the shrub has attained its full growth, that is, in six or seven years, and is about the height of a man, it is cut down and succeeded by fresh shoots.

"For various reasons the trees are not planted close; first, because they would then cast too dense a shade; secondly, there would not be around them a free circulation of air, which would impart a rankness to the leaves. In many cases the cultivation is carried on upon the most arid mountains, which probably stunts the shrub, but improves the flavor of the tea. In most cases the excellence of vegetable productions is proportioned to the aridity of the soil, which occasions a diminution in quantity, while it improves the quality. Thus the olives of Attica were the most prized in antiquity, as the honey was the sweetest and most fragrant. For the same reason it can scarcely be doubted that the superior teas of Japan are unrivalled for aroma and delicacy of flavor. It is in no way inconsistent with such an opinion that the wealthier Japanese set a high value on the finer teas from China, because, all the world over, mankind are fond of variety, and especially commodities brought from a distance.

"Among other articles of Japanese export we must reckon the finest rice in Asia, or perhaps in the world, since even that of Carolina shrinks from comparision with it. To this we might add a long catalogue, such as provisions, deer and goat-skins, flax, hemp, exquisite earthenware, varnish, red naphtha, medical drugs, odoriferous gums, amber, ambergris, and pearls; but the wealth which that immense group of islands could supply to commerce, were their industry emancipated from all trammels, cannot now be conjectured, because the half civilized natives are incapable of appreciating the resources of their country, and prevented by their barbarous government from converting to useful purposes the natural riches which time or accident has discovered to them.

"We shall not here insist on the increase of our knowledge of mankind that must accrue from a thorough investigation of Japan, for such considerations weigh only with the few: to these, however, it would be no small satisfaction to be able to penetrate into that extraordinary system of ideas, ethical and metaphysical, which make up the politics and religion of these secluded people. When the country was formerly accessible, most travellers were incompetent to enter upon abstruse researches, in ethnology, physiology, ethics, politics, or metaphysics. They limited their observation to the most obvious phenomena of nature and society, and would immediately have been lost in the attempt to grasp the subtle theories prevailing among the strange and secluded nations they sometimes visited. Even now travellers equal to the task of refined observation are few. Not one in ten thousand can emancipate himself from the maze of the notions in which he was educated. Almost every man carries about with him a little moral and intellectual Europe, from the level of which he judges and condemns whatever is new or strange to him, or above or below his comprehension. Still more remarkably was this the case when Japan was visited by Kempfer and the Jesuits, and the more recent travellers, such as Thunberg, Titsingh, Siebold, and others, who possessed still fewer qualifications for appreciating correctly an extraordinary people.

"But, as we have said, it would be beside our present purpose to enter into considerations like these, our object being to convince the manufacturing and commercial classes of Great Britain that a vast and wealthy market might immediately be thrown open to their goods, could they be persuaded to bestir themselves, and exert that legitimate influence which they obviously possess on the proceedings of ministers."

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1. ALABAMA—MOBILE AND CHICAGO RAIL-ROAD.

Alabama begins now to exhibit with her manufactures and internal improvements, much of the interprise and spirit of her sister State of Georgia. The following from the National Intelligencer of a late date, condenses many valuable particulars.

The best route for this great improvement has been ascertained by elaborate surveys. It passes through five States, as follows: sixty-two and a third miles in Alabama, two hundred and seventy-one miles in Eastern Mississippi, one hundred and nineteen and one-third miles centrally in Western Tennessee, thirty-nine and one-third miles in Western Kentucky, and three hundred and seventy-five miles centrally in Illinois; making the distance from Mobile to the mouth of the Ohio river four hundred and ninety-two miles, and the entire distance, from the Gulf of Mexico to Lake Michigan, eight hundred and sixty-seven miles. Its general course

Mobile to the Ohio river, is slightly west of north, thence to Chicago about the same degree east of north. It crosses no navigable stream (great or small) in its whole extent, except the Ohio river, at or near its mouth. It is an average distance of ninety miles from the Mississippi river, and not less than fifty miles average distance respectively from the Illinois and Wabash rivers. Unobstructed by the tributaries of the Mississippi river on the west, it is equally clear of those of the Tombecbee, Tennessee, and Wabash rivers on the east. Thus, in its course nearly due north and south, it occupies a belt of country almost entirely destitute of natural channels of communication, and forms at the same time the most direct, cheap, and durable *trunk line* of railway that can be projected for the great valley of the West. In length it is only 11 per cent. longer than an air line, with no ascending gradient going south steeper than thirty feet per mile, and none going north over forty feet per mile; and its highest point of elevation south of the Ohio river, above tide, five hundred and five and a half feet. Its position for the intersection of other cross or diverging lines of railway is at all points very favorable, to wit: one hundred and twenty miles from Mobile, in Clarke county, Mississippi, it will cross the Vicksburg and Montgomery line; one hundred and fifty miles from Mobile, in Kamper county, Mississippi, it will receive a branch line from the coal fields of the Black Warrior Valley, via Tuscaloosa; which branch may eventually be extended to Huntsville, Alabama. In Tishimingo county, Mississippi, it will connect with the cross line of road from Memphis, Tennessee, through North Alabama to the Georgia railway, at Rome or Chattanooga. By a branch road twenty-three miles long, it will intersect the Tennessee river below the "Great Bend Shoal," three hundred and forty-six miles from Mobile. This branch, extended through Columbia and Nashville, Tennessee, to Louisville or Frankfort, Kentucky, and thence to Cincinnati, forms a connecting line of immense value to the States of Tennessee, Kentucky, Indiana and Ohio, and to the several railway interests leading from these States to the Atlantic cities. At Columbus, Kentucky, it will receive a branch from the St. Louis and Pacific line, via the Iron Mountain of Madison county, Missouri. About sixty miles east of St. Louis it will intersect the important line from that city and Alton to Cincinnati and Louisville. Still further north, and half way between the Ohio and Lake Michigan, it will cross the very direct easterly line from Springfield, Illinois, to Indianapolis, Columbus, and Baltimore. At Peru, the southern terminus of the Illinois and Michigan canal, it will branch to Chicago and Galena, to gather the traffic of the Lakes and the Upper Mississippi, and finally be extended northwardly to Lake Superior.

"As a north and south trunk line, these numerous connexions (with many more not now thought of, which will one by one spring into existence as the country becomes more densely settled) will give it an immense amount of reciprocating traffic, while its junction with the two great rivers Ohio and Mississippi, at their confluence, is in this repect no less fortunate. There each and every passing steamer will have access to the road without going out of its course; and thus, by the great number of steamers, the road will be connected with all the towns and villages situated upon the banks of the numerous rivers, whose waters here mingle.

"The total present population, white and black, in counties to be mainly accommodated by this road, is not less than one million, with an aggregate export and import tonnage of seven hundred and fifty thousand tons. The entire present population of States, and parts of States, whose markets are and will continue to be chiefly at the Gulf ports, is upwards of five millions, with an estimated export and import tonnage of four million nine hundred and eight thousand tons. While the whole present population of the Mississippi basin, including the western portions of Virginia, Pennsylvania and New York, which will be connected with the Gulf by the Mobile and Chicago road, in less distance and time than by any other avenue, is eight million five hundred thousand. The distances by this road from several important inland towns to the *Gulf*, as compared with the river channels, may not be without interest, to wit:

Bend of Tennessee river, via rail-road,	375 miles.
Do. do via Tennessee and Mississippi rivers,	1,455 "
Difference nearer by rail-road, in time 160 hours, and	1,076 "
Memphis, Tennessee, via rail-roads,	461 "
Do. do. via Mississippi river,	913 "
Difference nearer byrail-road, in time 90 hours, and	452 "

Huntsville, Alabama, via railroads,	478	miles.
Do. do. via Tennessee and Mississippi rivers,	1,542	"
Difference nearer by rail-roads, in time 170 hours, and	1,064	"
Nashville, Tennessee, via rail-roads,	508	"
Do. do. via Cumberland and Mississippi rivers,	1,641	"
Difference nearer by rail-roads, in time 175 hours, and	1,133	"
Mouth of the Ohio river, via rail-road,	526	"
Do. do. via Miss. river,	1,156	"
Difference nearer by rail-road, in time 89 hours, and	630	"
St. Louis, via rail-roads,	700	"
Do. via Mississippi river,	1,366	"
Difference nearer by rail-roads, in time 133 hours, and	666	"
Cincinnati, via rail-road to Nashville and Mobile,	770	"
Do. via Ohio and Mississippi rivers,	1,666	"
Difference nearer by rail-road, in time 168 hours, and	896	
Chicago, via rail-road,	900	"
Do. via Illinois canal, and Illinois and Mississippi rivers,	1,734	"
Difference nearer by rail-road, in time 171 hours, and	834	"

The total cost of this road, from Chicago to Mobile, eight hundred and sixty-seven miles, constructed with a heavy iron rail, sixty-five pounds to the yard, and fully stocked with machinery for its opening business, in proportion to the extent and productiveness of the country, will not exceed twenty thousand dollars per mile, or an aggregate of seventeen million three hundred and forty thousand; less than one-half the amount already invested in railways by the city of Boston.

"Besides the directness, cheapness, and labor-saving capacity of this road as a *trunk line*, and the extraordinary reduction to be effected by it in distance and time to the people of the West, there are several important considerations in favor of a grant of public land in aid of its construction, which I beg leave to state in the succeeding number of your paper, requesting also that the other papers at Washington will take such notice of the subject as its merits may deserve.

2. GIRARD AND MOBILE RAIL-ROAD.

In estimating the profits that will be returned to the stockholders for their investments in this road, we may be aided in our calculations by the statistics of other roads similar in character to the one under consideration. It may be said, as a general remark, that the rail-roads in Georgia, some of which will be part and parcels of the Girard road, are assimilated to this one, in the cost of construction, the amount of business, the expense of maintaining, &c.; their returns then will furnish tolerably accurate data upon which to predict our estimates.

The following figures show the condition of three of the principal rail-roads in Georgia.

From the report of the central rail-road of Georgia, we gather the following facts.

The total amount of earnings for the year 1849, were	$668,383 91
Total expense for same time,	337,628 87
Leaving a balance as per profit, of	$333,755 04

Which is a fraction under 12½ per cent. on the capital invested.

From the report of the Macon and Western Rail-Road, for the year ending November 30, 1849, we gather that

The gross income of the road for that year, was	$198,467 93
The expense during the same period,	87,698 67
Leaving a net profit of	$110,76

Which is 17½ per cent. on the entire cost of the road.

From the report of the Georgia Rail-Road for the year ending March 31, 1850, we learn that the gross profits for that year, were, - - - $626,807 02

Total expense for the same time,	228,281 97
Leaving for net profits,	$388,525 05

As this report is of such recent date, we will quote a few details from it, going to show the flourishing condition of the road, and its increasing business.

The superintendent, in his report, states that the increased income has been from passengers, $23,166,41 ; from freight, $20,049,85. Sixty-five thousand four hundred and thirty-eight passengers have been carried in the cars of the regular trains, making an average of 179 per day, both ways, against 107 for each of the two preceding years.

The number of local passengers, exclusive of emigrants and those by extra trips, has increased from 31,518 (86 per day) to 58,091, (157 per day) and the receipts thereby, from $104,653 to $132,686.

A satisfactory increase is noticed in the up freights, viz.: 148,931 to 202,757, (35 per cent.) The falling off in the down freights has been caused by the short crop of cotton and entire failure of the wheat crop, the diminution of receipts from these causes, being 23,692 bales of cotton, 13,361 barrels of flour, 100,431 bushels of grain.

From the profits of the year, two dividends, of $3 50 each per share, have been declared, amounting in the aggregate to $289,000, and $105,666 19, transferred to the reserved fund.

Now, upon this exhibit of the business of the Georgia roads, we may make an estimate of the success and probable revenue of the Girard road, as follows:—

Through passengers, 40,000 at $8,	$120,000
Through cotton, 75,000 bales, at $1 50,	112,500
Through freights, besides cotton,	150,000
Way cotton, 10,000 bales,	40,000
Way passengers and freight,	50,000
Mail services,	50,000
	$732,000
Maintaining and working at $1,000 per mile,	210,000
Net balance,	$522,000

Which, estimating the cost of the road at $2,000,000, would be an interest of a fraction over 25 per cent. upon the capital stock. We are confident our figures are within due limits. The travelling now between this city and Mobile, both ways, averages one hundred per day; and when we take into consideration the great inducement that this favorite mode of travelling will present to our denizens and visitors, and the great rush of California immigrants, who would give this route the preference over the tardy and expensive sea voyage from New-York, it will be admitted that our figures for the 'through travelling' are not extravagant. The fertile character of the land through which the road will run, and the inexhaustible resources of the rich country in and around its terminus, warrant us that our calculations of the amount of produce and merchandise to be transported, are reasonable.

Connected with these details is another consideration incident to the increased facilities for travelling, which will be held out by this railway, and which will be of vast benefit to New-Orleans. We allude to the amount of money that will be left here, by travellers who come here as a starting point to go north or to the Pacific. The value of the business may in part be estimated from a fact within our own knowledge. The steamer Alabama, a few weeks since, brought here from Chagres 198 passengers. With an abundance of *dust*, they were all in want of clothing and supplies of every kind. One of our citizens, with no impertinent inquisitiveness, but with a laudable curiosity to ascertain facts to improve to our advantage, watched their movements, and from his own observation and information he obtained from the parties themselves, he arrived at the conclusion that each of these passengers expended in the city, on an average, $75 to $100. This sum was divided among the hotel keepers, money brokers, jewellers, dry goods men and clothing stores, and through these channels circulated through the community, and thus benefitting all classes.

As the travel on rail-roads is the pricipal source of profit, we will show in detail what is the present and future continuity of the lines of railway from the Gulf of Mexico to the Atlantic cities. The following is a schedule of roads, distances, and the time consumed in travelling over them.

Distances from New-Orleans to New-York.

	Miles.	Hours.
New-Orleans to Mobile, - - - -	160	10
Mobile to Girard, - - - - - -	220	11
Girard to Fort Valley, - - - - -	70	3½
Fort Valley to Macon, - - - - -	25	1¼
Macon to Augusta, - - - - -	160	8
Augusta to Branchville, - - - - -	73	3⅔
Branchville to Manchester, - - - -	46	2⅓
Manchester to Wilmington, - - - -	148	7¼
Wilmington to New-York, - - - - -	594	29½
	14,196	76½

Mobile to Girard, by rail-road; Girard to Fort Valley, by Muscagee rail-road; Fort Valley to Macon, by the south-western rail-road; Macon to Brinsonville, by the Central Rail-Road; Brinsonville to Augusta, by the Augusta and Waynesbro' Rail-Road; Augusta to Branchville, by the South Carolina Rail-Road; Branchville to Manchester, by the Columbia and Camden Rail-Road; Manchester to Wilmington, by the Manchester and Wilmington Rail-Road; and from Wilmington by various ways to Maine.

The advantages, considered in a social point of view, to be derived from a free and easy intercommunication with all parts of the country, are inappreciable. With quick and cheap transit are associated many pleasures and comforts. Some require the facility of getting away from a climate incongenial to their health, to one more genial; with others the human affections are to be gratified, and friendly visits must be frequently interchanged; others need variety of scene, or pleasure, or rest for recreation from toil and labor; others avail themselves of easy transit to facilitate business operations; but with all quick and cheap communication to distant points is conducive to human happiness, convenience and profit. Another advantage of no minor consideration in these days, when the postal system is so much an element in the commercial world, is the facilities that this railway will furnish for the transmission of mail intelligence. At the common rate of railway speed, intelligence may be conveyed on a continuous line of rail-road from New York to New Orleans in less than four days. It is unnecessary to comment upon the benefits resulting from such close intercourse with distant correspondents—they are apparent to all. The rail-roads are "the proxies of men's clasping hands" knitting the affections together with "hooks of steel," or, to speak more literally, binding and welding them with iron bands.

In a political aspect, the construction of this road as "the last link in the chain of communication of the extreme south-west with the extreme north-east of our confederacy," is of primary consideration. In these times of agitation, the most effectual mode of suppressing sectional animosity, and promoting kindly feeling, is to bring the people of this widely extended country into close communion; to make them better acquainted. Want of communion, of free and cheap intercourse generates want of confidence, distrust of every kind, and bad blood:

> "Lands intersected by a narrow faith
> Abhor each other. Mountains interposed
> Make enemies of nations, who had else
> Like kindred drops been mingled into one."

This view of the matter suggests an idea growing out of the relations of the federal and state governments in regard to appropriations for works of internal improvement. We have before alluded to the grant made by the Senate of the United States, of alternate sections of the public lands to the Illinois railway. The precedent is a sufficient assurance to us that Congress will be equally liberal to the Girard Rail-Road; but there is superadded obligation imposed upon the government to aid this enterprise. It is well known that at Pensacola there is a navy yard, an extensve depot of military stores and munitions of every kind, and a very expensive fortress in progress of construction. This port is designed to be the key of the Gulf— tection of the immense commerce of this great inland sea. In a case of it could nol be supplied with an effective force in twelve or fifteen days; build this road, and any amount of men from the interior could be poured into it in as many hours. The Girard Rail-Rail will run within forty miles of Pensacola, and a road of as many miles will connect this important point with every part of the country.

N. O. Bulletin.

4. VICKSBURG AND JACKSON (MISS.) RAIL-ROAD.

When in Vicksburg last August, we took especial pains in inquiring into the condition of this work, and through the courtesies and attentions of the able and accomodating Treasurer, Col. Roach, were able to collect many interesting facts which want of space has hitherto prevented our incorporating in the Review. We shall furnish a part of them now, and hereafter, in an article upon Mississippi, for which we have collected abundant material, will recur to the subject.

"The Vicksburg Rail-Road extends from the city of Vicksburg, on the Mississippi River, eastward to Jackson, the capital of the State of Mississippi, a distance of forty-six miles. It was commenced in 1836 and finished in October, 1840. It is laid with Trail on cedar ties and post-oak sills; and although it has been in full operation for nearly ten years, and has transported more than 300,000 passengers, *not a single passenger has ever been injured on the road.*

"The rates of passage of this road are four and one-third cents per mile—nearly as low as those on any *good* road in the Middle and Northern States.

"Freights going eastward are received daily, Sunday excepted, at the Vicksburg dépôt, from 7 A. M. to 5 P. M. in the summer, from 8 A. M. to 4 P. M. in the winter, and freights for Vicksburg at all the other dépôts from 8 A. M. to sunset.

"The Southern Rail-Road, from Jackson to Brandon, fourteen miles long, owned by the state, but operated by the Vicksburg company, is the commencement of the great line of road intended to connect Vicksburg on the Mississippi and Charleston on the Atlantic.

"After the 1st July, 1850, the great mail will be carried by a line of first class four-horse post-coaches from Brandon, M.i, to Montgomery, Ala., and thence by rail-road to Charleston, S. C. This route will offer to Southern travellers one of the most eligible routes for travel eastward as regards speed, safety and economy.

TIME AND DISTANCE TABLE.

	Miles from Vicksburg.	Fare from Vicksburg.	Miles from Brandon.	Fare from Brandon.
Vicksburg, -	—	—	60	$2 75
Big Black, -	12	$0 50	48	2 25
Edwards', -	17	80	43	1 95
Midway, -	23	1 00	37	1 75
Bolton's, -	27	1 20	33	1 55
Clinton, -	36	1 50	24	1 25
Jackson, -	46	2 00	14	75
Brandon, -	60	2 75	—	—

ARTICLES OF FREIGHT SENT BY RAIL-ROAD FROM VICKSBURG EASTWARD.

	Year ending 1st Aug., 1848.	Year ending 1st Aug., 1849.
Iron, pounds, - - -	344,451	1,387,979*
Sugar, " - - - -	721,810	811,717
Meat, " - - -	1,811,628	1,687,586
Liquids generally, barrels, -	3,350	2,923
Flour, " - -	8,197	10,436
Coffee, sacks, - - - -	2,886	3,057
Salt, " - - - -	8,285	10,402

* Increase caused by transport of Iron for Brandon Rail-Road.

	Year ending 1st Aug., 1848.	Year ending 1st Aug., 1849.
Bagging, pieces,	2,736	3,774
Rope, coils,	2,722	3,851
Lime and Cement, barrels,	1,008	1,147
Ice, "	509	503*
Apples and Potatoes, "	3,523	4,173
Molasses, "	1,570	1,484
Nails, kegs,	1,797	1,861
Lard, "	1,737	1,370
Candles, boxes,	1,170	1,421
Soap and Starch, boxes,	676	619
Tobacco, "	932	999
Merchandise, "	17,467	14,180
Miscellaneous packages,	13,081	17,462†
Lumber, M. feet,	146	146‡
Waggons, Buggies, &c.,	130	95§

STATISTICS OF VICKSBURG AND JACKSON RAIL-ROAD.

	PASSENGERS	RECEIPTS.	
For the year ending 1st August, 1847,	20,467	$39,529 00	Rate 6.52 per mile.
" " " " 1848,	20,533	39,437 84	
" " " " 1849,	26,261	31,758 75	Rate 4.35 per mile.
For 11 months ending 30th June, 1850,	32,022	37,846 05	

NUMBER OF BALES OF COTTON RECEIVED BY RAIL-ROAD AT VICKSBURG.

Year ending 1st August, 1846,	52,857 bales.	
" " " 1847,	34,904 "	Nom. crop.
" " " 1848,	51,798 "	
" " " 1849,	59,682 "	
11 months ending 1st July, 1850,	29,708 "	

The receipts this month will not reach 100 bales.

CORN TRANSPORTED FROM 1ST FEBRUARY TO 1ST JULY, 1850.

	Miles.	Bushels.	Price of Freight on Rail-Road.
Vicksburg to Brandon,	60	2,900	9 c. per bushel.
" " Jackson,	46	23,476	5 c. " "
" " Clinton,	36	14,513	5 c. " "
" " Bolton's,	27	8,868	4 c. " "
" " Edwards',	18	11,887	4 c. " "
" " Way Places,	12	750	3 c. " "
		62,394	

Amount paid rail-road for its transportation, $2,973 15. Its weight, at 52 lbs. to the bushel, 3,244,488 lbs., or over 1,622 tons of 2,000 lbs. each. The average distance transported is over 38 miles, and allowing a good four-horse or six-ox team to carry 3,000 lbs., and to travel twenty miles a day, it would have required a hundred of such teams, constantly occupied for forty-four days, to effect the transport.

The cost of hauling by teams from Vicksburg to Clinton, before the construction of the rail-road, ranged from 40 to 125 c. per 100 lbs. If the lower rate be assumed, then the transport of the above amount of corn would cost - $12,977 60

It actually paid by rail-road - - - - - - 2,973 15

$10,004 45

Or if we estimate each team-driver, &c., at $3 per day, then the cost would amount to $13,200.

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[*] This is merely the incidental supply; besides this, 100 to 150 tons are sent during the winter to supply the ice depots at Jackson.

[†] These cannot well be classed.

[‡] This does not show the full transport of lumber, as the chief supply comes from Jackson and from Edwards to intermediate depots.

[§] These numbers do not freely represent the carriages transported, for they are sometimes boxed and forwarded as merchandise.

COST OF SUPPORTING WORKMEN WITH PROVISIONS.

We introduce these figures to show with what economy labor may be supported in this region, and they should have some bearing in discussing the questions of manufactures here:

Cost of Feeding Men on the Vicksburg and Jackson Rail-Road.

For the 6 months ending 1st Sept., 1848, average cost of each man per month,	$2 33
" " " 1st Mar., 1849, " " " " "	2 63
" " " 1st Sept., 1849, " " " " "	2 79
" " " 1st Mar., 1850, " " " " "	2 72
4, - - - - - -	$10 47
Average per month for two years for each man, - - - - - -	$2 62

The ration consists of bacon, flour, molasses, coffee, sugar, beans, tobacco, rice, potatoes, meal, salt.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1. PRODUCE OF THE INTERIOR RECEIVED AT NEW-ORLEANS 1849–50.

A Table showing the receipts of the principal articles from the interior during the year ending 31st August, 1850, with their estimated average and total value.

Articles.	*Amount.*	*Average.*	*Value. Dollars.*
Apples, ... bbls.	37,244	$3 00	111,732
Bacon, ass'd, hhds. & casks	38,336	40 00	1,533,440
Bacon, ass'd, ... bxs	28,941	20 00	578,820
Bacon Hams, hhds. & tierces	19,335	45 00	870,075
Bacon, in bulk, ... lbs	209,045	5	10,452
Bagging, ... pieces	58,321	14 00	816,494
Bale Rope, ... coils	86,104	8 00	688,832
Beans, ... barrels	9,307	3 00	27,921
Butter, kgs and firkins	51,058	4 00	204,232
Butter, ... barrels	1,772	20 00	35,440
Beeswax, ... "	367	40 00	14,680
Beef, ... "	49,473	9 00	445,257
Beef, ... tierces	15,798	15 00	236,970
Beef, dried, ... lbs	48,219	6	2,893
Buffalo Robes, .. packs	358	65 00	23,270
Cotton, ... bales	837,723	50 00	41,886,150
Corn Meal, ... barrels	5,187	2 75	14,264
Corn, in ear, ... "	42,719	90	38,447
Corn, shelled, ... sacks	1,114,897	1 40	1,560,855
Cheese, ... boxes	62,809	3 00	188,427
Candles, ... "	55,306	6 00	331,836
Cider, ... barrels	903	3 00	2,709
Coal, Western, "	600,000	45	270,000
Dried Apples and Peaches, ... barrels	2,999	3 00	8,997
Feathers, ... bags	5,900	30 00	177,000
Flaxseed, ... tierces	217	10 00	2,170
Flour, ... barrels	591,986	5 75	3,403,919
Furs, hhds. bdls and boxes	444	.....	400,000
Hemp. .... bales	34,792	20 00	695,840
Hides, ...	43,542	1 25	54,427
Hay, ... bales	56,258	4 00	225,032
Iron, pig, ... tons	20	25 00	500
Lard, ... hhds	215	60 00	12,900
Lard, ... bbls. and tcs	228,019	18 00	4,104,342
Lard, ... kegs	302,366	3 00	907,098

Articles.	*Amount.*	*Average.*	*Value. Dollars.*
Leather, ... bundles	5,233	25 00	130,825
Lime, Western, .. bbls	32,060	90	28,854
Lead, ... pigs	415,400	3 00	1,246,200
Lead, bar, kgs. & bxs	631	18 00	11,358
Molasses, (estimated crop,) ...... gallons	12,000,000	20	2,400,000
Oats, .. bbls. and sacks	325,795	1 00	325,795
Onions, ... barrels	13,024	2 00	26,048
Oil, Linseed, .. "	1,098	30 00	32,940
Oil, Castor, ... "	2,091	70 00	146,370
Oil, Lard, ... "	14,712	24 00	353,088
Potatoes, ... "	166,003	2 00	332,006
Pork, tcs. and barrels	543,694	9 50	5,165,093
Pork, ... boxes	15,695	20 00	313,900
Pork, ... hhds	13,968	40 00	558,720
Pork, in bulk, ... lbs	15,862,431	3 75	594,841
Porter and Ale, barrels	804	8 00	6,432
Packing Yarn, ... reels	4,131	6 00	24,786
Skins, Deer, ... packs	1,375	25 00	34,375
Skins, Bear, ... "	37	15 00	555
Shot, ... kegs	4,435	20 00	88,700
Soap, ... boxes	9,930	3 00	29,790
Staves, ... M.	6,000	35 00	210,000
Sugar (estimated crop) hhds	247,923	50 00	12,396,150
Spanish Moss, .. bales	4,337	6 00	26,022
Tallow, ... barrels	4,862	20 00	97,240
Tobacco, Leaf, .. hhds	79,404	60 00	4,764,240
Tobacco, Strips, hhds	9,400	140	1,316,000
Tobacco, Stems, hhds	3,000	20 00	60,000
Tobacco, Chewing, kgs.& bxs	2,021	20 00	40,420
Twine, bdls. and bxs	2,118	12 00	25,416
Vinegar, ... barrels	180	5 00	900
Whiskey, ... "	117,753	9 00	1,059,777
Window Glass, boxes	4,887	5 00	24,435
Wheat, ... barrels and sacks	57,508	2 00	115,016
Other various articles, estimated at...			5,000,000
Total value, ...			$96,897,873
Total in 1848–49, ...			81,989,692
Total in 1847–48, ...			79,779,151
Total in 1846–47, ...			90,033,256

2. ANNUAL COTTON STATEMENT; CROP, 1849-50.

EXPORTS TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM UNITED STATES,

FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1849, TO AUGUST 31, 1850.

From	*To Great Britain.*	*To France.*	*To North of Europe.*	*Other For'n Ports.*	*Total.*
New-Orleans, bales	397,189	117,413	25,196	84,950	624,748
Mobile,	162,219	39,968	....	11,977	214,164
Florida,	39,594	....	7,165	2,175	48,934
Texas,	513	....	....	....	513
Georgia,	137,185	14,110	1,848	....	153,143
South Carolina,	165,623	33,082	8,944	9,922	227,571
North Carolina,	....	....	....	....	....
Virginia,	....	....	133	50	183
Baltimore,	202	....	230	....	432
Philadelphia,	3,454	....	....	599	4,053
New-York,	200,113	85,054	27,726	1,907	314,800
Boston,	670	....	914	21	1,614
Grand total,	1,106,771	289,627	72,156	121,601	1,590,155
Total last year,	1,537,901	368,259	165,458	156,226	2,227,844
Decrease,	431,130	78,632	93,302	34,625	637,689

GROWTH.

Crop of 1823—4, bales	509,158	1832—3, bales	1,070,438	1841—2, bales	1,683,574
1824—5,	569,249	1833—4,	1,205.394	1842—3,	2,378,875
1825—6,	720,027	1834—5,	1,254.328	1843—4,	2,030,409
1826—7,	957,281	1835—6,	1,360.725	1844—5,	2,394,503
1827—8,	720,593	1836—7,	1,422 930	1845—6,	2,100,537
1828—9,	857,744	1837—8,	1,801,497	1846—7,	1,778,651
1829-30,	976,845	1838—9,	1,360,532	1847—8,	2,347,634
1830—1,	1,038,848	1839-40,	2,177.835	1848—9,	2,728.596
1831—2,	987,477	1840—1,	1,634,945	1849-50,	2,090,706

CONSUMPTION.

Total crop of the United States as above stated, bales			2,096,700
Add—			
Stocks on hand at the commencement of the year, 1st Sept. 1849:			
In the southern ports,		72,468	
In the northern ports,		82,285	
			154,753
Makes a supply of			2,251,459
Deduct therefrom:—			
The export to foreign ports,	1,590,155		
Less foreign included,	1,341		
		1,588,814	
Stocks on hand, 1st September, 1850:			
In the southern ports,	91,754		
In the northern ports,	76,176		
		167,930	
Burnt at New-York and Charleston,		6,946	
			1,763,690
Taken for home use, bales			487,769

QUANTITY CONSUMED BY AND IN THE HANDS OF HOME MANUFACTURERS.

1849-50, bales	487,769	1841—2, bales	267,850	1833—4, bales	196,413
1848—9,	518,039	1840—1,	297,288	1832—3,	194,412
1847—8,	531,772	1839-40,	295,193	1831—2,	173,800
1846—7,	427,967	1838—9,	276,018	1830—1,	182.142
1845—6,	422,597	1837—8,	246,063	1829-30,	126 512
1844—5,	389,006	1836—7,	222.540	1828—9,	118.853
1843—4,	346,744	1835—6,	236,733	1827—8,	120 593
1842—3,	325,129	1834—5,	216,888	1826—7,	149,516

In our last annual statement, the estimate of cotton taken for consumption for the year ending September 1, 1849, in the states south and west of Virginia, was probably over-estimated; the following for the past year is believed to be very nearly correct. The number of mills has increased since that time and are still increasing, but the quantity consumed as far as we can learn is, owing to high prices, &c., less than the year previous. The following estimate is from a judicious and careful observer at the South, of the quantity so consumed and not included in the receipts. Thus, in—

	Mills.	*Spindles.*	*Quantity consumed.*	
North Carolina,	30	....	20,000	bales.
South Carolina,	16	36,500	15,000	"
Georgia,	36	51,150	27,000	"
Alabama,	11	16 960	6,000	"
Tennessee,	30	36,000	12,000	"
On the Ohio, &c.,	30	102,220	27,500	"
Total to September 1, 1850,			107,500	bales.
" " 1849,			110,000	"
" " 1848,			75,000	"

To which should be added the stocks in the interior towns, the quantity burnt in the interior, and that lost on its way to market; these, added to the crop as given above, received at the shipping ports, will show very nearly the amount raised in the United States the past season; say, in round numbers, 2,212,000 bales.

The quantity of new cotton received at the shipping ports up to the 1st inst., amounted to about 255 bales, against about 575 bales last year.

The shipments given in this statement from Texas, are those by *sea* only; a considerable portion of the crop of that state finds its way to market via Red River, and is included in the receipts at New-Orleans.—*New-York Shipping List.*

LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

JEPTHA'S VOW.

BY CHARLES H. ALLEN.

The fiery conflict now is o'er,
And many a warrior in his gore
Lies mangled on the battle-field,
Beside his sword and trusted shield.
Bold hearts, which once with courage beat,
Are press'd beneath the conquerors' feet,
And dying groans are heard afar,
Unheeded 'midst the shriek of war.
See squadrons charge and squadrons wheel!
They trample o'er the dead, nor feel
A moment's pang, or drop a tear,
At all the horrid carnage here.

But hark! what means that song of praise,
Which Israel's hosts exulting raise?
Ah! 'tis that victory crowns the fight,
For lo! afar the Ammorite
Doth speed away his rapid flight,
Nor heeds he now his comrades dead,
Who for their chieftain fought and bled.

The day is thine, stern Jeptha, now!
Go and perform thy solemn vow;
Upon the blazing altar high
Go lay the first who, drawing nigh,
With smiles would greet and bid thee come
Victorious to thy stately home.

Hush'd is the song of joy, and yet
A settled gloom still seems to set
Upon the aged hero's brow;
For in his mind that awful vow
Oft he recalls, and dreads to know
Whose sacrificial blood shall flow.
Amid contending hopes and fears,
The timbrel and a song he hears.
Whose is that voice, so soft, so sweet,
That comes the hero thus to greet?
Ah! read it in his eye so wild—
'T is Jeptha's fair and only child!
The father saw that beauteous one,
And o'er his soul a horror run;
He madly rent his clothes and cried,
"Oh! would, my daughter, I had died
On yonder bloody field away,
Or that the foe had gained the day;
For I have vow'd, and thou must die,
A sacrifice to Deity!"

"Let it be done," she meekly said;
"Oh, let thine only child be laid
Upon the sacred altar now,
And thus fulfil that solemn vow;
But grant me first this last request—
That I upon yon mountain's crest,
With these my fellows, ere I die,
Bewail my virgin purity."

And now these mourning days are o'er,
And Jeptha's beauteous child no more
Will cheer that broken heart,
Or bear in dance or song a part:
For see the kindling flames prepar'd,
And that fair victim's bosom bared,
Whilst by her side the father stands,
And inly mourns that his own hands
Must slay his child—his only one.
But ah! he strikes—the deed is done!
And his ill-fated daughter dies
A strange, a horrid sacrifice!
And Judah's daughters yearly wept
Upon the mountain-side, and kept
In sad rememberance those days,
By singing oft in mournful lays
The fate of the fair Gileadite,
Who perished in a bloody rite.

Abbeville, S. C.

WHY WEARS THY BROW A SHADE?

BY EDWARD J. PORTER.

Why wears thy brow a shadow,
  When all around is bright,
And only Pleasure's breathings
  Float through the halls to-night;
When Beauty's stars are gleaming,
  In all their light arrayed,
And Joy her lute hath shaken—
  Why wears thy brow a shade?

When the South wind's breathings bear us
  Soft perfumes on its wings,
And the fresh green leaves are trembling
  To their spirit-murmurings;
When the fountain's song of gladness
  Is swelling through the glade,
And all is joy around thee—
  Why wears thy brow a shade?

When the bright and joyous mingle,
  Like flowerets in a wreath,
And light and song are blended,
  As the odors that they breathe,
While the moments that are gliding
  On Pleasure's shrine are laid
By those, like thee, the lovely—
  Why wears thy brow a shade?

Kingstree, S. C.

EDITORIAL DEPARTMENT.

1. GREAT INDUSTRIAL FAIRS IN EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES.

The power above the throne, and which is ruling the world, can be discerned in nothing more clearly than the Industrial Conventions and Fairs which are annually taking place in every quarter.

1. **Exhibition of the Works of Industry of all Nations in London, May, 1851.**—A Central Committee for the United States has been established at Washington, through whom only can any articles be sent for exhibition to the great Fair. Peter Force, Esq., President of the National Institute, is chairman of the committee. There will be a committee in each of the states, appointed by the governor, who shall pronounce upon the fitness of articles for exhibition, and communicate with the Central Committee. No other articles than those properly endorsed by the Central Committee will be received at the Fair. Products will be received from the first of January to the first of March. A building covering sixteen to twenty acres will be provided. A prize fund of £20,000 will be distributed in premiums. The objects for exhibition are thus classified, and will be received into England without payment of duties as warehouse or re-export goods. Pamphlets containing full particulars will be supplied by the Central Committee, located at Washington.

Classified Lists of Products.

I. Raw Materials and Produce—illustrative of the natural products on which human industry is employed.

II. Machinery for Agricultural, Manufacturing, Engineering and other purposes, and Mechanical Inventions—illustrative of the agents which human ingenuity brings to bear upon the products of nature.

III. Manufactures—illustrative of the result produced by the operations of human industry upon natural produce.

IV. Sculpture, Models, and the Plastic Art generally—illustrative of the taste and skill displayed in such applications of human industry.

2. **International Fair in New-York.**—There are two propositions in regard to this. By the first it is suggested that an arrangement be made by means of which all the articles exhibited at the London Fair in May shall be transported to the United States, and held on exhibition here early in the summer. The plan appears to meet with great favor, and could no doubt be carried out. Another proposition, if indeed the two may not be combined together, is that suggested by the Hon. Zadoc Pratt, of New-York, who has now a reputation wide as the Republic for being the friend of industry and the working man, the liberal benefactor of every enterprise tending to elevate the laboring classes and pursuits of the nation. The matter is now in the hands of the Mechanics' Institute, New-York, who have issued a circular to all disposed to co-operate, signed Zadoc Pratt, of Prattsville, C. S. Woodhull, Mayor of New-York, and Wm. Kemble, of the West Point Foundry.

3. **The Great Fair of the American Institute, New-York.**—The month of October is as usual set aside, and preparations are already in progress in Castle Garden. These are the most magnificent exhibitions of industrial products ever made in America, and are attended by hundreds of thousands of visitors. We have ourselves been present on one occasion, and hope to be so again the coming month.

4. **Southern Mechanics' and Agricultural Institute, Charleston.**—The second annual fair will be held in Charleston on the 18th of November, 1850, and continue one week. Productions are invited from all the Southern and

South-Western States. In addition to premiums for mechanics and manufacturers, the following others will be awarded:

For the best bale Sea Island Cotton, not less than 300 lbs. Do. Short Staple.
For the best Tierce of Rice.
" " Hhd. Muscovado Sugar.
" " Leaf Tobacco, not less than 100 lbs.
" " Barrel Wheat Flour.
" " Tierce Indian Corn.
" " Barrel Spirits Turpentine.
" " Barrel of Rosin.

It is intended to send the premium articles and some selections to the great London Fair.

We have great hope that this Charleston exhibition will prove a most brilliant move, and that every Southern state will be fully represented. It is time that the South should, in some *systematic and organized* manner, promote the advances of her manufacturing industry, which is destined in time to be as important as her agricultural. The circular of the committee is signed by

G. N. Reynolds, Jun.,
C. D. Carr,
Wm. Lebby.

Articles must reach Charleston by 14th November, directed to L. M. Hatch. Communications will be addressed to James H. Taylor. Hon. J. H. Lumpkin, of Georgia, will deliver the annual address. The South Carolina R. R. Company charge freight only one way on articles sent to the fair.

5. Great Southern and Western Fair, New-Orleans.—This has been suggested by us in one of our late numbers, and we mention it here as one of the objects which should receive attention in this wide and growing section of our Union. The West, as well as the South-West, are becoming great and growing seats of manufacturing enterprise, and we know of no points better adapted to the meeting of a manufacturers' convention, or the arrangement of a fair. We shall be glad to hear suggestions, and to hold correspondence upon this subject with whoever may be willing to take it up in earnest. With an effort we have every guarantee of success.

II. VITAL STATISTICS OF NEW-ORLEANS.

In our August number we published the statistics of Drs. Barton and Simonds, showing a very high mortality in New-Orleans, and acknowledged ourselves convinced of the truth of the statements maintained by them. Since that time Dr. Simonds has published a series of papers in the same connection, to which we have looked in vain for a reply from any of the medical men of the city. As we have no other object but truth, we insert an extract from Dr. S.'s tables, in order to stimulate investigation. Our pages are open to the discussion.

The mortality of New-Orleans is given on three estimates of population, the lowest of which, 100,000, I believe to be the most correct. The mortality is also calculated, deducting the cholera, which is proper, as the deaths are those of but a single year, though the deaths from cholera in Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, and Charleston, are included in the calculated mortality of those cities. For a comparison of the mortality of different places, periods of time not less than ten years should be taken. I have not been able to obtain for this city for a longer period than one year, *data* in such a form as to be available for a complete investigation. If tables similar to that furnished by Dr. Barton were prepared for a series of years, more accurate, and we hope, more favorable results would be obtained.

TABLE,

Showing the average number dying annually in each ten thousand of the living.

*Manchester, males,	365
* " females,	331
*Liverpool, males,	353
* " females,	315
*London, males,	274
* " females,	231
†Twenty-six Cities of England, 4 years,	271
†Twelve Counties " 4 years,	193
‡Massachusetts, 1847–8,	150
§Boston, 1830–45,	222
¶New-York, 1805–36,	276
† " 1841–8,	287
**Philadelphia, 1807–40,	251
††Charleston, 1822–48,	240
N. O., 1849—population 100,000,	986
" " " 120,000,	888
" " " 150,000,	657
" " " 100,000, Cholera ded.	658
" " " 120,000, " "	548
" " " 150,000, " "	438

It will be seen that even on the most favorable estimate the mortality of this city greatly exceeds that of any other city of the United States, and even exceeds that of the densely populated cities of England. The factories of Manchester, the cellars of Liverpool, the pauperism and vice of London, furnish, comparatively, fewer victims to disease than this city, whose health has been, for years, a subject of boast and misrepresentation. In truth, our mortality is treble that of Boston, and more than double that of New-York, of Philadelphia, and of the twenty-six largest cities of England.

The table presents a most deplorable picture of the sanitary state of New-Orleans. After the deduction of cholera, the total mortality is double that of the cities of England and of New York, and an excess prevails in nearly every class of disease. The unspecified cases are nearly ten times as numerous as in New York, which indicates the want of medical assistance and the little attention bestowed upon this very important subject. The deaths from Zymotic diseases (cholera deducted) are more than three times as numerous as in England, and two and a half times as numerous as in New-York. Sporadic diseases cause here fifty per cent. more deaths than in New York. External causes produce twice as many deaths as in New-York, and three times as many as in England. Diseases of the nervous system are twice, and of the digestive system two and a-half times as frequent as in New-York. The still-born are nearly twice as numerous as compared with the aggregate population; how they would compare with the number of births we have no means of determining. Violent deaths, (casualties) and Exopathic causes are more than twice as frequent. Of old age we have fewer deaths, which of course is against us. Diseases of the respiratory system, and Monoxysmal diseases are the only important classes in our favor, and that not very materially.*

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* McCulloch, British Empire....† Dr. Jarvis, on Vital Force, Appendix....‡ Calculated from Registration Reports....§ Calculated from Tables in "Census of Boston."....¶Calculated from Am. Jour. Med. Sciences, XXII....** Calculated from Am. Jour. Sciences, I., IX., N. S. XVI....†† Calculated from "Census of Charleston."

LATE PUBLICATIONS.

1. FROM HARPER AND BROTHERS, THROUGH J. B. STEEL.

1. *The Past, Present and Future of the Republic. By Lamartine.*—In this little work Mr. Lamartine compares the republic of 1795 with that of 1848, and shows why the latter is called democratic, and not social. He then passes to the foreign relations of the republic and its financial condition, concluding with the organization of universal suffrage. He says, in the introduction, he has the idea of recapitulating briefly, for the use of those who have not time to read every morning the innumerable swarm of public journals, the principal events since the foundation of the republic, of analysing the ideas, the doctrines, the opinions, the illusions, the truths, which dispute possession of the intelligence of the masses.

2. *Railway Economy in Europe and America. By Dr. Lardner.*—We design an elaborate review of this valuable work in our next, and meanwhile commend it to all who are interested in the extension of the internal improvement system of our country. The volume contains 33 chapters, and discusses influence of improved transport on civilization, organization of railway and railway progress, locomotive power, carrying stock, stations, passenger traffic, goods traffic, expenses, receipts, tariffs, profits, accidents on railways, electric telegraph, inland transport in the United States, Belgian, French, German, Russian, Italian and Spanish railways, comparison of railway transport in different countries, relation of railways to the state, etc., etc.

3. *Five Years in the Far Interior of South Africa*, with notices of the Native Tribes, and Anecdotes of the Chase of the Lion, Elephant, Hippopotamus, Giraffe, Rhinoceros, etc., by Roualeyn Cumming, Esq., with illustrations, in 2 vols. This is an elegant work, and one of liveliest interest throughout. The author spent many years in the wilderness, and says: "Whatever on those occasions I witnessed worthy of attention, I noted in my journal while the impressions were fresh in my memory. From this journal the following work is almost literally transcribed. If I have in simple language given pleasure to the sportsman or added one page to the natural history of South Africa or to our knowledge of the tribes, I shall think myself amply repaid for my many wanderings and watchings in a wild and savage land."

4. *Progress of Astronomy*, especially in the United States, by Elias Loomis. The work discusses recent additions to our knowledge of the planetary system, Neptune, Asteroids, etc., recent additions to our knowledge of comets, astronomical expeditions, observatories, telescopes, progress, etc.

5. *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, by Ed. Gibbon, Esq., with Notes by Rev. H. H. Milman; a new edition, with complete index of the whole work, in six volumes. We have received Vols. V. and VI. of this valuable work, bound in muslin, and uniform with Harpers' edition of Hume and Macaulay.

We acknowledge the receipt of the proof-sheets of a new work upon Louisiana, by our friend *Charles Gayarré, Esq.*, and also the proofs of the *New-Orleans Book*, containing extracts from the various writers of the city, by our friend *Robert G. Barnwell, Esq.*, of Louisiana, both of which shall be noticed in our next.

Should any books sent to us by publishers not be noticed in this number, they shall not be neglected when we appear again. We invite them all to forward their publications as they issue from the press.

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2. BOOKS FROM APPLETON & CO., NEW-YORK.

1. *Ollendorff's New Grammar*, for the Germans to learn English, by P. Gands. This work will be highly esteemed by our German fellow citizens.

2. Key to Ollendorff's Grammar for Germans to learn English.

3. *Select Orations of M. Tullius Cicero*, with notes for the use of Schools and Colleges, by E. A. Johnson of the University of New-York. This volume is in the cheap style of Appleton's classical series.

4. *The Prelude, or Growth of a Poet's Mind:* An Autobiographical Poem, by William Wordsworth. This poem was written about the year 1805, and published in 1814, being intended as an introduction to the Recluse. The volume is handsomely issued and is divided into fourteen chapters, which go over an interesting period of the poet's life.

5. *George Castriot, Surnamed Scanderbeg*, King of Albania, by Clement C. Moore, L.L. D. The author tells us, he was first induced to write the life of Scanderbeg, the heroic prince of Epire and scourge of the Turks, by reading Johnson's Rambler, thus furnishing an account of an extraordinary person whose life and exploits afford a real narrative, as interesting, if not more so, than most of the works of fiction, etc., of the day.

6. *Lives of Eminent Literary and Scientific Men of America*, by James Wynne, M. D. This work, which will no doubt be continued in volumes, contains biographies [illegible] Johns-

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* The number of deaths in New-York in 1849 was 22,372, of which 5,072 were by Cholera. The total number in 1848, 14,618. Of the 22,372 in 1849, 13,300 only were Americans. The number of Irish was 5,968. Therefore the mortality of 1849, including Cholera, was one in sixteen, or 6.2 per cent., supposing the population to be 350,000, which it exceeds.

than Edwards, Fulton, Chief Justice Marshall, Rittenhouse and Eli Whitney.

7. *Dictionary of Mechanics*, Engine Work and Engineering, Nos. 17 and 18, are just issued at the cheap rate of 25 cents each. This is one of the most valuable publications of the day. By Oliver Byrne.

3. FROM J. B. STEEL, NEW-ORLEANS.

1. *Notes from Nineveh and Travels from Mesopotamia, Assyria and Syria, by Rev. J. P. Fletcher: Philadelphia, Lea & Blanchard.*—This is the work of a gentleman who visited the East in 1842, as lay associate of a clergyman, who was about to proceed on a mission of enquiry into the present state of religion and literature among the ancient christian churches of the East. The author has given many interesting particulars of all the countries visited, interspersed with discussions interesting to theologians.

2. *Propositions Concerning Protection and Free Trade, by Willard Phillips: Boston, Little & Brown.*—This little volume contains a systematic attack upon the doctrines of the economists and upon free trade in particular. Many persons will be curious to see such a work, which in the main is well written.

3. *Cuba and the Cubans; comprising a History of the Island, its present Social, Political and Domestic Condition, also its relation to England and the United States, with an Appendix: New-York, G. P. Putnam.*—Such a work was much needed just now, but although it contains many interesting particulars, it does not altogether supply the want. We do not like the spirit with which the author treats some of his predecessors in the same field and from whom he borrows largely. The work favors the Cuban American party.

4. *The Hungarian Revolution, with Biographical Sketches of the leading Statesmen and Generals engaged in it, by Johan Pragay, Col. in the Hungarian Army: G. P. Putnam, New-York.*—This work we have previously noticed.

5. *Unity of the Human Races, Proved to be the Doctrine of Scripture, Reason and Science, with a review of the present position and theory of Prof. Agassiz, by the Rev. Thomas Smyth, D. D.: G. P. Putnam, New-York.*—In our August Number, when speaking of the various publications which this subject has of late elicited, we neglected to mention the present volume, which indeed we had not then received. The author is well known to publishers as one of the most indomitable writers of the day, and has made more books in the same time, than perhaps any man in America. We had no idea he would have ventured into this field to contend with such men as Morton, Agassiz, Bachman and Nott. However, he has done it, and we have seen him handled somewhat roughly in the Democratic Review, etc. He has also been praised in other quarters, and the author tells us the work was elicited by the discussions of the Charleston Literary Club and by the Lectures of Dr. Nott. The substance of the work was contributed in a series of papers to various religious journals. The volume is in many respects is an interesting one and deserves consideration.

6. LOUISIANA LAW BOOKS—J. B. STEEL.

1. *Reports of Supreme Court*, 12 vols., 1841 to 1846, by M. M. Robinson, Esq.

2. *Martin's Reports*, comprising Orleans Reports, 1 and 2, and Louisiana Reports, No. 1, with Marginal References, by Thomas G. Morgan, 1 vol.

3. *Greiner's Code of Practice*, new edition.

4. *Benjamin and Slidell's Digest*, enlarged.

5. *Deslix's Digest*: a continuation of Benjamin and Slidell.

6. *Deslix's Supreme Court General Index and Digest*, from 1809 to 1843.

The prices of all these law works have been considerably reduced, by Mr. Steel.

FROM B. M. NORMAN.

Fenner's Southern Medical Reports.—We refer the reader to our notice of this valuable work in the August Number, and to the extracts made from it in September. Other extracts we shall hereafter furnish, and our object now is to commend the book to the planters as eminently deserving of their favor. Though invaluable to the medical profession, it will be valuable in every private family. The volume contains 500 pages, with maps and illustrations, and is intended to be published in an annual series, enbracing all of the Southern states. Full mortuary statistics of white and negro population will be included, and every thing tending to sanitary ameliorations. Terms, bound volumes, $3 cash. Paper covers, $2 50, (for mailing.) Address, E. D. Fenner, M. D., New-Orleans. To favor our friend, Dr. Fenner, we will ourselves execute orders for the work, if requested.

THE SOUTHERN LITERARY MESSENGER.

This interesting Southern Monthly which has so long been published in Richmond, Virginia, and which is one of the first works of the kind in our country, continues to reach our table. It is deserving of the widest patronage from all disposed to promote Southern literature, and is conducted by John R. Thompson, Esq., Richmond, at five dollars per annum.

The August number contains—1. The world before the Flood; from our Paris correspondent; Homes of the Poets; Rydal Mount; Study of the Classics; Thoughts on Cicero; Seldons of Sherwood, chapters 35 and 36; Works on Hungary; Extracts from MSS.; Thoughts on English Poetry; Letters from New-York.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

11. "Lord! Keep my Memory Green." By Mrs. Anna Peyre Dinnies. 12. Flowers. By Charles Wood. 13. Lines to a Friend Inviting

me to Town. 14. James River. By Wm. H. Holcombe. 15. Lines. 16. From the German of Herder. Don Alonzo Perez Guzmann der Getreue. 17. To An Invalid Wife. By Sidney Dyer.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

A Presidential Funeral—"The Cause of the South"—Death of Sarah Margaret Fuller—Mr. James and Miss Bremer.

NOTICES OF NEW WORKS.

History of the Polk Administration; The Shoulder Knot; Sketches of Travel in Egypt and the Holy Land; The Conquest of Canada; Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution; Railway Economy.

☞ See Book Notices on third page of cover.

The Editor appends the following notice in compliance with repeated requests which have come in upon him ever since his connection with the Messenger. The Editor announces that he shall commence in the next number the re-publication of Judith Bensaddi, a tale by Henry Ruffner, D. D., which appeared in this magazine several years ago. The original edition being out of print, persons desirous of securing a copy of the story will best do so by sending their names as subscribers to the Messenger.

Exchange papers will do us a favor by alluding to the foregoing notice.

THE CAUSE OF THE SOUTH.

The article with this caption by us in our July number, seems to have been misunderstood by several leading Southern presses, and we have been censured very much about it. A reperusal will satisfy any one the charge against us is groundless, and in letters to the *Charleston Mercury* and *Southern Press*, we have made this appear as it is to be hoped satisfactorily. That article was written in part ironically, but in the main under feelings of much depression growing out of Southern apathy or distraction. God knows the South has no son truer to her cause than ourself, and none who would be found more willing to do or to dare in her behalf, whatever her exigencies may at any time require. Her cause is our cause — her destiny ours. Let us then not be misunderstood.

TO OUR SUBSCRIBERS, &c.

☞ In our last number were enclosed bills and prospectuses, which we hope will meet with favorable consideration and attention. As the bills were made out in the absence of the Editor from New Orleans, it is possible errors may have occurred, etc. The bills sent by us *personally* in April, May and June last, are correct with the addition of five dollars to each for the year ending January or July, 1851. *We entreat prompt remittances*, in our greatly enlarged expenses, and *to prevent the heavy commissions to agents*. The Review is now the largest monthly in the United States, and the expense in four months is as great as that of the Quarterly's in a whole year.

☞ The Editor regrets his list has not increased in proportion to the improvements and expenses which have been added to the Review. Will not subscribers exert themselves with the prospectus we send them in adding new names. To those who have already done this, and the number is quite considerable, our most grateful thanks are offered. Would all do as much, the list would be speedily doubled. Let Southern men reflect with what liberality Northern works are supported. Harpers' New Monthly Magazine in New York has already forty thousand circulation, and increasing at an immense ratio! This in a few months.

☞ Ill health occasioned the absence of the Editor during the summer from New-Orleans, which is the reason for some delays in the issue of the August and September numbers, and will account for any mistakes in the distribution. Should such occur they will be gladly rectified. It is believed that a few July numbers were sent in place of August. Subscribers will therefore examine, and where it has occurred, return the July, when the August will be sent.

☞ To the same reason as above may be ascribed a deficiency in editorial matter and in the Literary Department, a reason which has now ceased to exist, which the editor hopes will be seen in the ensuing numbers.

LIBRARY EDITION OF DE BOW'S REVIEW.

8 VOLUMES, 1845—1850, HANDSOMELY BOUND IN SINGLE OR DOUBLE VOLUMES. PRICE PER SET, SINGLE VOLUMES, $25.

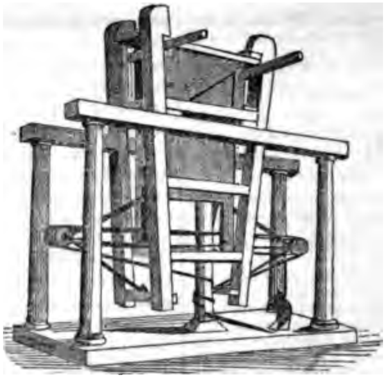
PRICE PER SET DOUBLE VOLUMES, 4 YEARS, $24, AND SO ON FOR FUTURE VOLUMES.

A very few sets remain still, and the editor solicits orders from all persons forming libraries, or who would have upon their tables and shelves a magazine of information upon every subject connected with the industry and population of the Southern and Western States, together with the leading particulars that relate to the Union at large. It is from the sale of these sets the editor hopes to be reimbursed for the early losses sustained in publishing the Review, and he appeals to friends for their influence in obtaining orders. Persons from the country when in the city will do well to call at our office, 22 Exchange Place, and examine these volumes, though it is believed the merits of the work are now sufficiently tested every where, judging from the large and growing circulation.

Sets of the work will be delivered in any of the large cities or towns, without any expense to the person ordering, viz.: in Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Richmond, Charleston, Mobile, Savannah, Vicksburg, Memphis, St. Louis, Cincinnati, etc.

Orders on factors payable on sale of crop, if acknowledged, will be received as cash. Subscribers may always remit money to us by mail in any good bank notes or in gold, without waiting for the call of the agent, which will be a great saving to us and no expense to t

M'Comb's Labor-Saving Press, Patented Feb. 27, 1849.



THIS Press has proved to be unprecedentedly successful as to speed, ease, and convenience. Its ease is such that less than half a horse-power is required to run five hundred pounds of cotton up to twenty-two inches. Its speed is such that six hands can make fifty bales in a day, and ordinary work of five hands is three bales to the hour, and less than one hour's work of the horse is necessary to make fifty bales. Its convenience is such that hands never have cotton thrown into the box overhead, nor ever have their heads within the box, consequently it is much less oppressive to hands than ANY OTHER PRESS.

Its durability will probably be ten times that of any other PRESS, and it is adapted to almost any gin house. The subscriber is prepared to take orders for this press, to be erected on the plantation—the planter furnishing all wood material on the spot, and assistance of two servant men to assist whilst the work is doing, and board hands and horses, and paying freight on iron, at the following rates:

For a No. 1 Press, which has solid iron drivers, $275 00.

No. 2 Press, which has all iron joints and wooden drivers, $250 00.

No. 3 Press, which has iron toggle or elbow joint, and works in wood at top and bottom, $200 00.

No. 4 Press, which has iron bearings at toggle joint, and works in wood at top and bottom, $185 00.

These prices include the irons, nails, ropes, and wood-work. He is also prepared to furnish the iron, nails, &c., not including rope, at the following rates:—

For No. 1 irons, including right to use and working plan, $150 00; No. 2, $125 00; No. 3, $85 00; No. 4, $75 00. Individual rights, (with accurately drawn working plans, by which any good workman can erect the press,) at $40 00 each.

The number has reference to the character or kind of irons, and not to the size, ease, speed, or convenience, and the comparative durability is yet to be determined, as the oldest press of this kind, which is No. 4, has worked on only three crops. The general opinion is that either number will last ten times as long as even the iron screw.

Having made arrangements for the manufacture and shipment of these PRESSES complete, with a view to supplying the increasing demand, they will be furnished at a convenient point for shipment at the same price that is charged for them on the plantation, the purchaser paying freight and charges. This enables the planter to get his PRESS without trouble, and at a cost of perhaps not more than $25 more outlay, in lieu of which he SAVES the labor of getting timber, box, and door stuff, board of hands, &c., and gets a machine made of better material than it is convenient to get usually on plantations. The PRESS is portable, and can be taken down and removed at pleasure.

The subscriber will sell State or County rights for this PRESS, which affords a rare chance to secure a handsome business either in building or selling rights to others to build. All PRESSES supplied by the subscriber are guaranteed to perform according to the above statement, and to be made of good material, and in a workmanlike manner.

Persons wishing PRESSES at any future day will please make their orders early, so that the work may be executed in good season.

M'COMB'S NON-ELASTIC TIE.—The use of this PRESS, and M'COMB'S NON-ELASTIC TIE, (the wooden hoop secured by an iron link,) enables the planter to save from 75 cents to one dollar per bale, as he can put and keep his bales in shipping size. The subscriber will furnish links, with right to use, at 12½ cents per bale, (seven links to each bale,) and links and hoops ready to put on at thirty cents per bale.

In cases where it is inconvenient to make payment on the completion of a Press, an accepted draft payable out of the next Crop will be taken; consequently planters may have their work done early in the season.

AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF IRONS, RIGHTS, &c.

J. D. SPEAR & Co., Founders, Mobile, Ala.
GINDRAT & Co., Montgomery, Ala.
ZIESER & LANIER, Merchants, Vicksburg, Miss.
S. ZIMMERMAN & Co., Founders, Vicksburg, Miss.
SUETZ & HEWIT, Founders, Louisville, Ky.
GEO. W. SIZER, Agricultural Warehouse, N. Orleans, La.
S. P. BERNARD, Druggist, Providence, La.

In all cases, the receipt for the right to use is a lithographed engraving, signed by the patentee. These are furnished to all authorized to sell, and the public are hereby notified that no others claiming the right to build, or sell irons, are authorized.

MISSISSIPPI SPRINGS, *May* 3, 1850.

D. M'COMB, PATENTEE.

THIS is to certify that I am now using one of "M'Comb's Labor-Saving Cotton-Presses," on the third crop, and take pleasure in saying that it is truly a labor-saving machine, and surpasses any thing of the press-kind of which I have any knowledge for ease, speed, and convenience. Three bales to the hour is easy work for five hands, and LESS than HALF A HORSE-POWER is necessary to make a FIVE HUNDRED POUND BALE, and only ONE MINUTE USE OF THAT POWER. From my experience with my Press, I conclude that this Press will last ten times as long as any other Press in use. It is much less oppressive to hands than any Press I have seen, it being so constructed as to enable the operators to fill the box without having their heads within it. Upon the whole, I think it the most important improvement in machinery offered to the Cotton grower since the introduction of the Cotton-Gin.

JAMES M. GIBSON.
Warrenton P. O., Warren co., Miss.

THE undersigned having witnessed the operation of "M'COMB'S LABOR-SAVING COTTON-PRESS," take pleasure in saying that it is admirably calculated to remove all the difficulties heretofore contended with in making cotton-bales, as it combines all the advantages of *ease, speed, convenience*, and probable durability, more entirely than any press we have seen. The bale is made with from six to eight revolutions, which one horse can make with ease. Its peculiar construction makes the labor to hands less oppressive than usual, and its location under the roof of the gin-house, enables the planter to have pressing done in all kinds of weather, without exposure of hands. Upon the whole, it is our opinion that it is the most important improvement in machinery offered to the cotton growers since the introduction of the cotton-gin, as it reduces the (ordinarily) severe labor of baling cotton, to a comparatively easy operation.

E. J. TULLIS, HINDS COUNTY, Miss.
J. LIPSCOMB, MADISON Co., do.
DAVID E. MARTIN, WARREN Co., do.
A. K. MONTGOMERY, HINDS Co., do.
H. N. SPENCER, FORT GIBSON, CLAIBORNE Co.
E. T. MONTGOMERY, MADISON Co., Miss.
SAMUEL M'COMB, CLAIBORNE Co., do.
ONTGOMERY, HINDS Co., do.
NTGOMERY, do. do.

May 8, 1850.

DE BOW'S

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ART. I.—MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY.

THEORY OF MANUFACTURES—THEIR PROGRESS—ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF COTTON MANUFACTURES IN ALL COUNTRIES—UNITED STATES. MANUFACTURES—SOUTHERN MANUFACTURES.

THOUGH every nation be, in fact, primarily dependent upon its soil for the means of support, none can be said to be purely agricultural. Some changes or modifications will take place in the raw material, in the lowest state of society; and even where, in a more advanced period, the vast proportion of the people are employed upon the soil, as is the case in the north of Europe, some kinds of manufactures, however rude, will still gradually grow up.

Many of the great trading states of antiquity were also great manufacturing ones. Indeed, without such manufactures any very considerable trade could not be conducted, unless it be the "carrying trade." It is in the nature of manufactures to be regardful of distant and foreign markets. The home demand is ever too narrow, for whilst one agriculturist may be unable to supply the wants of more than four or five persons, a manufacturer can as easily supply those of a hundred. Great Britain, the greatest commercial power on earth, exports no *raw* produce other than sea coal.

In the most polished period of Greece and Rome, manufactures were regarded as essentially *servile* and unworthy the attention in any way of freemen. The same spirit has come down to us in many parts of our country, and is with difficulty subdued. It was maintained that such employments were hurtful to the strength and agility of the human body, and to its capacity for enduring the fatigues of war. The whole field was restricted to slaves.

There are various modes by which the higher manufactures may be introduced. They may be by a gradual improvement and refinement of the primitive, rude operations of the people, or the imitation of the more showy and splendid fabrics of other countries, and for which commerce introduces a taste. In the first case may be classed the Chinese and other Eastern products; in the last, the wool, silk and other manufactures of England, etc., etc.

They do not always indicate national prosperity, as frequent experience has shown, though in general they constitute a good criterion of it. In the midst of the most destructive foreign wars, the greater part of the manufacturers may frequently flourish, says Adam Smith, and on the contrary, they may decline on the return of peace. They may flourish amidst the ruin of their country, and begin to decay on the return of its prosperity.*

Manufactures contribute to opulence and luxury, the growth of cities, and their splendors; but the almost incessant concomitant is dense population, and all the evils in its train—poverty, suffering, ignorance and crime. These occur only in the most highly advanced state, and are dependent much, perhaps, upon unwise laws for their intensity. When the manufacturing spirit reaches this point, it becomes a great social and political evil.

The melancholy spectacle which Great Britain presents, is not without its warnings. It is possible to stimulate this branch of industry to the point of national degradation. Mr. Allison furnishes a frightful picture. "Great Britain," says he, "is to be regarded as a great workshop, which diffuses its fabrics equally over the frozen and the torrid zones; which clothes alike the negroes of the West Indies, the laborers of Hindostan, the free settlers of Canada, the vine growers of the Cape, and the sheep owners of New-Holland and Van Dieman's Land. The rapid increase of the human race in these advanced posts of civilization sustains and vivifies our empire, notwithstanding all the burdens consequent upon our political situation; and in spite of the prodigious increase in the power of machinery, has called into being an enormous and perilous manufacturing population.

"It is utterly impossible that this unparalleled growth of our manufacturing industry can co-exist with the firm foundations of public prosperity. Its obvious tendency is to create immense wealth in one part of the population, and increased numbers in another; to coin gold for the master manufacturer, and to multiply children in his cotton mill; to exhibit a flattering increase in the exports and imports of the empire, and an augmentation as appalling, in its paupers, its depravity, and its crimes."

The true position to be taken undoubtedly is, that the prosperity of no country can be considered permanent and stable, which is *wholly* dependent upon any single one of the three great industrial pursuits of commerce, agriculture, or manufactures, but that, however, any one may prevail; the others must be suffered to grow up by its side, without discouragement. In the *natural* state of things they will so grow up upon a secure and imperishable foundation.

The progress of manufactures in the old European states has been, for the most part, the result of their colonial empires established in

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Smith's Wealth of Nations, ii., 164.

the eastern and western worlds. The markets of these colonies for manufactured goods were limited to the parent state, and they were prohibited from sending their raw produce to any other source, or to work it up into any form of manufactures. Of the whole exports of manufactured goods in 1836, by Great Britain, somewhat more than one half were to her own colonies.

Before the close of the seventeenth century, (1699,) the Parliament of England declared that the American plantations should ship no wool or yarn manufactures. This was a blow at their infant attempts in the coarsest goods.

In 1719 it was declared, the existence of manufactories in the colonies lessened their dependence upon Great Britain; in 1732, that the convenience of the Americans from the plenty of beavers, hare, coney wool, and many other furs, gave them such advantages, that, unless restrained, they would soon supply all the world with hats. In the report of the Board of Trade, the same year, it is said New-England, New-York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania, have fallen into the manufacture of woollen cloth, for the use of their own families only, and linen cloth; hemp and flax they manufacture into coarse cloth, bags, traces and halters; some iron is manufactured in Massachusetts; also a bounty is given for the manufacture of duck or canvass by the Assembly; brown hollands are made, also small quantities of cloth for shirtings, paper to the amount of £200 a year; nails, bar iron, hollow ware, &c.; ships are built for the French and Spaniards; hats are made and exported to Spain, Portugal, and West India Islands; several still-houses and sugar refineries exist, &c.

In this alarming state of things, the Board remark, it were to be wished that some expedient might be fallen upon to divert their thoughts from undertakings of this nature, so much the rather, because these manufactures may be carried on in process of time in greater degree, unless an early stop be put to their progress!

" From the foregoing statement it is observable, that there are more trades carried on and manufactories set up in the provinces on the Continent of America, to the northward of Virginia, prejudicial to the trade and manufactories of Great Britain, particularly in New England, than in any other of the British colonies."*

In 1750, the Americans were forbid to work in iron; and Lord Chatham declared not long after in Parliament, that the colonies of North America had not even the right of manufacturing a nail.

During the revolution, and under the articles of federation, our manufacturing system made but little progress, though, in fact, such articles of plain construction as were necessary to our uses, were made.

In 1787, while the National Convention, which framed the Constitution, was in session in Philadelphia, a second convention met in that city, of the " Friends of American manufactures."

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* McPherson's Annals, Com.

The object of the Convention was to consider the condition of this branch of industry, so much affected by the system of duties and imposts which prevailed between the states.

Tenche Coxe, of Philadelphia, made a report to the Convention, in which he urged the establishment and encouragement of domestic manufactures with very great ability, thus connecting himself with the earliest movements of the kind in the Union. He takes a survey of the whole subject in all its lights, and, without doubt, supplied much of the material afterwards used by Alexander Hamilton in his celebrated report upon the same subject. The enumeration which Mr. Coxe makes of the articles then manufactured in the country has no little interest: meal of all kinds, ships and boats, malt liquors, distilled spirits, potash, gunpowder, cordage, loaf sugar, pasteboard, cards and paper, snuff, tobacco, starch, cannon, muskets, anchors, nails, and many other articles of iron, brick, tiles, potter's ware, mill-stones, &c., cabinet ware, trunks and Windsor chairs, carriages and harness of all kinds, corn fans, ploughs, &c., saddlery, &c., boots, shoes, leather, hosiery, hats and gloves, wearing apparel, coarse linens and woolens and some cotton goods, linseed and fish oils, wares of gold, silver, tin, pewter, lead, brass and copper, clocks and watches, wool and cotton cards, printing types, glass and stone ware, candles, soap, &c. &c.

"The encouragement and protection of manufactures" appears among other things, in the preamble of the first tariff act, under the present Constitution, 1789; and in 1791 the Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton, in answer to a call from the House of Representatives, submitted that celebrated report upon manufactures, which has won for him the title, in all subsequent times, of "father of the American System."

This able statesman went elaborately into the politico-economical questions of manufactures, weighing with nice deliberation their national advantages and disadvantages, and presenting a very powerful array of facts in support of his positions. The division of labor; the extension and use of machinery; the additional employment to classes in the community not ordinarily engaged in business; the promotion of emigration from foreign countries; the furnishing greater scope for diversity of talents and dispositions, which discriminate men from each other; the affording a more ample and various field for enterprise; the creating in some instances a new, and securing in all a more certain and steady demand for the surplus produce of the soil; are the prominent advantages he anticipated from manufactures.*

Mr. Hamilton goes afterwards into an enumeration of what had already been achieved in America, and draws from it the most flattering hopes of the future. He thus classifies the manufacturing products of that period.

1. Of *Skins*:—Tanned and tamed leather, dressed skins, shoes and boots and slippers, harnesses and saddlery, portmanteaux and trunks, leather breeches, gloves, muffs and tippets, parchment, glue, &c.

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* Am. State Papers, Finance, vol. i., 124.

2. Of *Iron*:—Bar and sheet iron, nails, steel, implements of husbandry, stoves, pots, and other household utensils, steel work of carriages and for ship building, anchors, scales, beams and weights, tools of artificers, arms of different kinds.

3. Of *Wood*:—Ships, cabinetware and turners; wool and cotton cards, and other machinery for manufactures and husbandry, mathematical instruments, cooper's wares, &c.

4. *Flax and Hemp*:—Cables, sail cloth, cordage, twine and pack thread.

5. *Miscellaneous*:—Bricks, coarse tiles and potters' wares, ardent spirits and malt liquors, printing, writing, and other papers, hats of fur and wool, &c., women's stuff and silk shoes, refined sugars, oil of animals and seeds, soap, spermaceti and tallow candles, copper and brass wires, distillers' wares, sugar refiners and brewers, andirons and other household utensils, philosophical apparatus, tin wares, carriages, snuff and manufactured tobaccos, starch and hair powder, lamp black and other painters' colors, gunpowder, &c.

These he states had arrived to considerable maturity, and are as applicable to the southern as to the middle or northern states. Great quantities of coarse cloth, coating, serges, and flannels, linsey-woolseys, hosiery of wool, cotton and thread, coarse fustians, jeans and muslins, checked and striped cotton and linen goods, bedticks, coverlets and counterpanes, tow linens, coarse shirtings, sheetings, towelling and coarse linens, and various mixtures of wool and cotton, and of cotton and flax, were made in the household way, and in many instances to an extent not only sufficient for the supply of the families in which they were made, but for sale, and even in some cases for exportation. It is computed that in a number of districts two thirds, three fourths, and even four fifths of all the clothing of the inhabitants are made by themselves.

Mr. Hamilton then goes into the question of protection, and finally into an enumeration of the materials of manufacture abundantly existing in the country, and the infant attempts in some of them. The list includes, iron, copper, lead, coal, wood, skins, grain, flax and hemp, cotton, wool, silk, glass, gunpowder, paper, &c., sugar and chocolate, &c., &c.

In the year 1791, according to the report of Albert Gallatin, made in 1810 by resolution of the House of Representatives, the first cotton mill was erected in Rhode Island, in 1795; another in the same state, and two more in the state of Massachusetts, in 1803 and 1804. Before 1808 fifteen in all were in operation, working about 8,000 spindles. By the end of 1809, 87 mills were being or had been erected, requiring 80,000 spindles, and with a capital employed of $4,800,000. The amount of cotton used was 3,600,000 lbs.; yarn spun, $3,240,000; persons employed, 4000. Many of the mills were also engaged upon wool. Mr. Gallatin furnishes the result in 14 woolen factories, which were not the whole. The cloths are represented as superior in quality, but inferior in appearance to the imported article of the same price.

Mr. Pitkins states, the first cotton factory in the United States was established by Samuel Slater, a cotton manufacturer from England, called the father of American cotton manufactures, and that President Washington delivered his speech to Congress, in 1790, in a suit of broadcloth from a factory in Connecticut.

In 1810, according to Gallatin, wood, leather, &c., soap, candles, spermaceti oil, &c., flaxseed oil, refined sugar, coarse earthenware, snuff, chocolate, hair powder and mustard, were manufactured in quantities large enough to supply the whole consumption.

He names a number of others supplying a greater or less part of the whole demand, some then but in early progress; among the last were paints, &c., medicinal drugs, salt, japanned ware, calico printing, earthen and glass ware, &c., &c.

"From the imperfect sketch," says Mr. Gallatin, "of American Manufactures, it may with certainty be inferred that their annual product exceeds one hundred and twenty millions of dollars. And it is not improbable that the raw materials used, and the provisions and other articles consumed by the manufacturers, create a home market for agricultural products not very inferior to that which arises from the foreign demand. A result more favorable than might have been expected, from a view of the natural causes which impede the introduction and retard the progress of manufactures in the United States."

The census of 1810 included a return of the manufacturing system of the Union, according to the suggestion of the Secretary, but was very deficient, from the haste in which the items were obtained. The results were prepared and digested by Tenche Coxe, appointed for that purpose.

The number of Cotton Mills returned was 168, with 90,000 spindles. The woolen fabrics at that period were principally made in families. Of wool, cotton and flax, the manufacture was greatest in New-York, including, of course, family workmanship, though Virginia manufactured the greatest number of yards; and what is singular, Virginia, the two Carolinas, and Georgia, manufactured greatly more in quantity and in value, than the whole of New-England together, and North Carolina produced double the number of yards of Massachusetts! The whole value produced in these articles was estimated at $40,000,000.

During the war, manufactures received an extraordinary stimulus. Capital flowed in upon them. On the restoration of peace, the whole immense stock of foreign manufactures, for some time accumulating, was thrown into the country, and sold at ruinous sacrifices. It was well worth while, said Mr. Brougham, to incur a loss upon the first exportation, in order, by the glut, to stifle in the cradle those rising manufactures in the United States, which the war had forced into existence, contrary to the natural state of things.

The history of the Cotton manufacture, in all countries, and from the earliest antiquity, possesses the highest degree of interest, and will not be out of place before proceeding any further in the discussion of our own manufactures. In India, from the remotest times, this industry has been prosecuted without improvement in machinery, but with extraordinary manual facility. Common muslins are made in every village. Those of Daca are of the most exquisite fineness, and are used by the lords, and called "webs of woven wind." The importation of these manufactures into Europe, has been almost entirely arrested by the progress made there in the same fabrics. India has indeed become herself an extensive *importer*.

In China, though long before the Christian era cotton cloth is noticed, not before the eleventh century is it supposed to have been extensively produced. The opposition of wool and linen makers retarded the progress until the close of the fourteenth century, when it rapidly advanced. At the present day, nine-tenths of the population are clothed in cotton. Large quantities of the wool are imported into China.

The cotton manufacture was introduced into Europe by the commercial states of Italy, about the year 1500; from Italy it passed to the Netherlands, and was carried over to England early in the seventeenth century, by Protestant refugees. In 1641, Manchester is mentioned in the "Treasure of Traffic" as engaged in this industry.

The manufacture was greatly improved by John Wilson, of Ainsworth, in a variety of ways; but, principally, in dressing, finishing and dyeing.

All the yarn produced was by the one thread spinning wheel, the only machine then used, and which put a practical check upon manufactures. In weaving, some advances had already been made by the fly-shuttle; also, a great improvement in carding, by the cylindrical carding engine.

In 1767, a great revolution was effected by the spinning-jenny, invented by James Hargreaves. "The progress of invention after this was rapid; for when it was seen that with the aid of the few mechanical combinations we have mentioned, the spinner had been able to increase his power of production nearly eighty-fold, the attention of those engaged in other branches of manufacture was awakened to the possibility of introducing changes equally beneficial in their peculiar employments."

Against this fearful innovation the populace, supported by the old process, rose up in rebellion and riot, and destroyed every machine that could come within their reach.

Whilst all this was going on, a humble barber boy, the youngest of thirteen children, in Lancashire, Richard Arkwright, conceived the idea that the spinning process might be greatly improved. With scarcely any science, and no means, he matured a plan in which, after many difficulties and trials, he obtained the countenance of some capitalists. The result was, in 1769 the "spinning-frame" was patented, for the discovery of which the author was knighted, and for which he is immortalized. No attempt to extend the principle of the frame was made until 1810, when the throstle was introduced, which last was improved by Mr. Danforth, an American spinner, and Mr. Montgomery, of Great Britain.

The next great invention was that of Samuel Compton, in 1775, the "mule jenny," which entirely supersedes Hargreave's jenny, being capable of producing the very finest yarns, which the other could not. As much as twenty guineas the pound was received for some, from Tobago cotton.

Various other important improvements have from time to time been introduced into all the departments of this manufacture, which have increased the productive power, extended the consumption, and diminished the price of fabrics to an inconceivable extent.

The manufacture of muslins began in England in 1785, and rapidly extended. Dimities were produced in the north of England, ginghams in Lancashire, cambrics in the same place and in Glasgow, and also, in the last, the bandana handkerchiefs, in imitation of those of the East.

About 1773, cotton calicoes began first to be fabricated at Blackburn, and in 1805 the pieces sold there were estimated at one million, but the process of hand weaving was unfavorable to their extension.

It was in 1787 that the great desideratum of power loom weaving was supplied by the ingenuity of Mr. Cartwright, who erected a factory immediately after. In this he was followed by others, but it was not, perhaps, before 1805 that the power looms may be said to have gone into very successful operation. The struggle with the hand loom weavers was long and bitter.

The conversion of the stocking frame into a machine for weaving point lace was perfected in 1809, and the manufacture increased with extraordinary rapidity, so that by 1823 the productions of France and the Netherlands were rivalled. It is in this our finest Sea Island cottons are used.

The cotton manufacture was introduced into France about the year 1765, and the yarns were at first brought from Turkey in a dyed state. The progress of this manufacture and its perfection, though considerable, are greatly behind that of England, except in the articles of dyed goods and sewed muslins.*

Spinning machinery was not introduced into Switzerland until 1798. Under a perfect system of free trade the manufacture of cotton goods has progressed steadily and extensively throughout the cantons, which exhibit the utmost industry and enterprise.

Austria, under her despotic government, has made little progress in manufactures. Saxony has a population favorable for their successful prosecution.

In Prussia the industry has extended very rapidly; and in addition to the large quantities of cotton wool annually spun, immense amounts of yarn are received from England to be worked up into clothes. Some of these are, it is said, returned to England.

Russia is also a vast consumer of English yarns, and the manufacture has been advancing in that country; the same may be remarked of the Italian States.

We have already furnished a sketch of the origin and early progress of the cotton manufacture in the United States, down to the close of the last war with Great Britain. We resume from that period.

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* This in 1831. Encyclop. Brit.

The national debt of the United States being very nearly liquidated, measures began to be agitated in 1831-2, in regard to the reduction of the then existing tariff. The Secretary of the Treasury, Hon. Louis McLane, was requested to collect the statistics of the manufacturing system of the country, and report to the next Congress. From the haste in which this duty was executed, and the imperfect returns, nothing resulted but a crude mass of minute particulars, embraced in two volumes, which no one, so far as we know, has ever undertaken to digest, and which are therefore of no practical value.

About the same period two great conventions were held in the United States, the one called Tariff and the other Anti-Tariff Conventions. These instructed committees to make the necessary investigations in order to memorialize and thus influence the action of Congress. At the head of the Free Trade Committee was Albert Gallatin.

This gentleman proceeds to show that, independently of protection, the home manufacture had greatly increased in the proportion of its commodities consumed to those of foreign make. He remarks, from the imperfect data obtained in 1810, the domestic manufactures formed from ⅔ to ¾ of the total amount of manufactures consumed. By 1823 the domestic had increased between 121½ and 136 per cent., and the amount of foreign manufactures was in 1824 from ⅕ to ⅙, whilst in 1801 it was ⅓ to ¼ of the whole amount consumed. This showed a considerable relative increase of the *domestic*.

The Tariff Committee confined their inquiries to the States of Virginia, Maryland, Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware.

In these States there were 795 factories, with a capital of $40,000,000; 1,246,503 spindles, producing 10,642,000 lbs. yarn, 230,461,900 yards cloth, and consuming 77,657,316 lbs. cotton, or 214,882 bales cotton; annual value product $26,000,000. A further capital of $32,000,000 was estimated as employed in machine shops, bleacheries and print houses.

In the southern and western states thirty establishments were returned but vaguely. Indeed it was said the manufacturers every where had underrated their operations on the fear of taxation, etc.

The whole annual product of cotton manufactures in 1834, Mr. Pitkins estimates at $40,000,000, including those of families not embraced in the report above, and correcting deficiencies; and in 1831 the consumption of the raw material was about one-third of that of Great Britain, equal to that of France, and double the rest of Europe.*

Previous to 1825 it is estimated we consumed often two millions pounds a year of raw cotton grown abroad, and Mr. Woodbury in his able cotton report in 1836, estimates the whole amount raw cotton consumed in the United States, in 1835, 100,000,000, of the value in goods, varying between 50 and 70 millions dollars; 45 to 50 millions being in factories. The whole import of foreign cotton goods at the same time average seven millions a year above the export of same kind of goods.

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* Pitkins, 486.

In 1840 the census returned for the whole Union gives the total number of cotton factories, 1246; number of spindles, 2,284,631; product, $46,350,443; capital invested, $51,102,359; one-third of this amount is due to Massachusetts, one-sixth to Rhode Island, one-ninth to Pennsylvania, one-twelfth to New-Hampshire. Illinois, Missouri, Arkansas, Michigan, Florida, Wisconsin, Iowa, and District Columbia, had no product.

Since that period the consumption of cotton has greatly increased in all the northern states, under the powerful stimulus of the Tariff of 1842, continued even under the less favorable one of 1846. The southern states, especially North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, have entered much more largely into manufactures. Alabama and Florida have followed, the same of Tennessee. The increase of cotton manufactures in the valley of the Ohio has been extraordinary within the past few years.

The amazing growth of Great Britain since the beginning of the century, has been the result of her manufacturing system, and especially of cotton. It was long supposed the Americans could not compete in this latter manufacture, from the high price of labor with them, and Mr. Hamilton discusses the question as early as 1790. We have seen that the manufacture had grown up in 1824, the point of the first *strictly* protective tariff, to a considerable stature; the low value of agricultural products and cheapness of raw material counterbalancing, no doubt, the difference in labor and interest. Our being able to sell some coarse goods in England evinces this. Nor is it to be supposed, that, in the advances of our country in population, the proportion between the value of labor in the two will be so far removed. It is but natural the United States should become a great manufacturing country, and, judging from the past and present indications, she will be enabled to supply, with her manufactured goods, every nation in the world.

Mr. Montgomery, an experienced English cotton manufacturer, having visited the United States, published, in 1840, an able work, contrasting our factories with those of Great Britain. He says:—

"The amount of goods produced is much greater in America than in Great Britain, but the hours of labor are somewhat longer in the former country. The cost of buildings, machinery, &c., is a great deal higher in America, as well as the general rate of wages. The British manufacturer, upon the whole, can produce 19 per cent. cheaper; but this is more than neutralized by the lower price of cotton. In every description of goods in which the cost of the raw material exceeds that of production, the American manufacturers have a decided advantage over the British; the experience of every British manufacturer engaged in producing this description of goods, has painfully convinced him that the superior quality of the American is gradually driving him from every foreign market. Hitherto, the British have enjoyed a monopoly of fine goods, but the resources of the Americans will soon enable them to compete successfully in these. They will adopt a more economical method of getting up their works, a more improved system of management, &c., &c., which will enable them to compete successfully with the British. And, indeed, he says the manufacturers here can afford to pay higher wages than the British, because they run their

factories longer hours, drive their machinery at a higher speed, from which they produce a much greater quantity of work, at the same time they can purchase their cotton at least one penny a pound cheaper, and their water power does not cost above one-fourth of the same in Great Britain.*

"In passing through the streets of Constantinople," says Mr. Jas. Lawrence, in a letter to the late Secretary of the Treasury, "during a stay of several weeks in that city, in the year 1848, I was attracted by the cry of 'Americanas!' 'Americanas!' from pedlers carrying packs of cotton goods upon their backs. On examining the goods I found they were of British manufacture, which led me to inquire the cause of their being hawked about as American fabrics. My informant told me that a few years before, some American cottons found their way from Smyrna to Constantinople, and were there sold. Their superiority was so appreciated by the consumers, that since then the pedlers, in order to obtain a higher price for inferior fabrics, whether of British or foreign manufacture, are obliged to give them the American name." The same state of things, Mr. Lawrence continues, exists in the markets of Alexandria and Cairo. In Asia Minor *genuine* American goods are sold.

The home consumption of cotton for manufactures has increased from 149,516 bales in 1826, to 487,769 bales in 1849–50. But these are not favorable years for comparison, as the following figures will show, though we must add to them the consumption in the southern and western states to have the whole amount.

COTTON CONSUMED BY AND IN THE HANDS OF HOME MANUFACTURERS.

	BALES.		BALES.		BALES.
1849–50	487,769	1841—2	267,850	1833—4	196,413
1848—9	518,039	1840—1	297,288	1832—3	194,412
1847—8	531,772	1839–40	295,193	1831—2	173,800
1846—7	427,967	1838—9	276,018	1830—1	182,142
1845—6	422,597	1837—8	246,063	1829–30	126,512
1844—5	389,006	1836—7	222,540	1828—9	118,853
1843—4	346,744	1835—6	236,733	1827—8	120,593
1842—3	325,129	1834—5	216,888	1826—7	149,516

In the southern and western states, where the manufacture has only lately been introduced, the increase has been from 75,000 bales in 1848 to 107,500 in 1850. The whole number of mills now reported in these states is 153, working 242,830 spindles. The figures are below the facts, and we may expect in a few years to see this profitable branch of industry monopolized by them.

The present consumption of cotton in the United States, said Gen. Talmadge, at the last fair of the American Institute in New-York, is estimated at 500,000 bales per annum, which is more than the entire crop in 1824. This does not include a vast quantity, which goes up the Mississippi, Ohio, and also out from the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, for the supply of the mills in Indiana, Ohio, Western Virginia, and Pennsylvania. There are said to be *upwards of two*

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* Montgomery, 126, 138.

hundred and fifty COTTON *mills south of Mason & Dixon's line:* in these points and sources of consumption, it is believed 150,000 bales are used, making a total, not less than 650,000 bales worked up, at home. The quantity of cotton goods made in the United States is estimated at 720,000,000 of yards, of which about 80,000,000 are exported, leaving 640,000,000 for home consumption."

We conclude with a few remarks from the address of Dr. Antisell, at the same fair, regretting that we have been unable to examine the other manufactures of the country with the same minuteness as cotton, and referring the reader to our published volumes for a vast variety of information upon the subject of cotton and its manufacture in the south, the Union, or abroad.

The vastness of the cotton trade, and the suddenness of its growth, naturally astonishes us. It is the agricultural wealth of the southern states. It would be well to recollect that it is England's manufacturing wealth. We export nearly five-sixths of all we grow, in exact numbers, in the year 1848:

The total cotton crop was	2,726,596	bales.
The export of 1849, as above	2,227,844	"
which with a small stock on hand, left	518,039	bales for

home consumption.

England is the chief buyer of the raw cotton, and the chief manufacturer of cotton prints, and this country is at present dependent on that island for the chief supply of cotton piece goods. The British export of cotton goods of all kinds, in the six months ending June, 1849, was 596,370,322 yards, of which the greater quantity came to this country.

There is, however, some comfort exhibited by the returns of the last twenty years: from these it appears that the imports now of plain calicoes are one-half what they were in 1830, and in printed calicoes between one-half and one-third; so that our cotton manufactures are gradually increasing, and at the present time represent one-fifth the value of all manufactured goods.

The exports of cotton manufacture are small, not having increased of late years, standing nearly at the same figure as in 1829; so that our increased supply has been for home consumption, an increasing population demanding it.

ART. II.—LITTLE RED-HEAD.—A TALE OF TEXAS BORDER LIFE.

The following sketch is from the pen of a gentleman who has acquired a large reputation for many thrilling stories of border life, and its thousand perilous adventures. By birth a Kentuckian, he repaired at an early age to Texas, and took part in many of the exciting dramas enacted there. It is our intention to diversify the character of the Review, by introducing an occasional paper of the sort, under our literary head, whenever any are offered possessing sufficient interest and attraction. We shall thus enliven the pages which have hitherto been too exclusively confined to the dry details of facts and statistics.—[ED.

CHAPTER I.

THE time of Secret Societies is not yet passed—at all events, we believe that many of them still continue to exert a wide and powerful influence, little realized in our common-place world. It is too much the outward manner of the times to sneer at the power of confederacies, though they are feared—nay, dreaded—with a peculiar sort of vehemence, and, frequently, even with superstition.

We mean to assert nothing disrespectful of such institutions in general, and of their results in particular—for we do believe that, in spite of the Inquisition, they have been the most important agents and means of progress. The deepest truths must come out of the heart of the world, whence they are worked up by the pale and begrimed miners of thought, towards the surface, until the ruddy children of the sun can grasp them, and they become, in their robust hands, REALITIES!

So with the principle of these Societies generally. The object to be attained is most usually a romantic one, and, of course, not strictly orthodox—therefore, secrecy may be required to prevent controversy. In a word, we do not undertake to defend such organizations, but simply to assert their existence in much greater numbers and power than men are generally disposed to believe; and, whether for evil or for good, their tremendous influence upon the times.

Most of the pretended revelations with regard to them have been proven to be false, and, of course, from the very principle of theory we can only really know of them by their effects. It is only from such a point of view that we would presume to speak. Such Societies have existed, and do exist among us, and, as elsewhere, have exerted, and do exert a most extended influence. The distance and division between north and south has been more felt than expressed through such organizations than otherwise—therefore, it is with effects that we propose to deal in this narrative, rather than causes, which we must beg leave to be inferred!

Years ago, before Texas was known as more than a wild province of Mexico, there existed an extensive and powerful association within the limits of our own territory, the operations of which were extended to a greater distance than was dreamed of by many of the most powerful and shrewd men of the day. It is unnecessary to particularize farther upon the motives and methods of such an institution, than to say that it was founded in a grasping, stern, but deep intelligence, and had for its objects what, at that time, would have been considered the most vague and wildly impossible schemes of territorial acquisition, which, having been suggested by the most bold and unprincipled man our country has produced, has been perpetuated by some of its most able, since, to a dazzling consummation. We cannot reveal more than glimpses of the methods pursued, and that rather by implication than by explanation.

It suffices to say, that young men were in some demand by them—but that they were young men of peculiar character. Agents, everywhere in the principal cities, such as New-York and New-Orleans particularly, kept their treacherous eyes secretly upon the movements of such young men as made themselves conspicuous for spirit, and were known to be of good families and education. The more dissolute the better, so they were truly courageous. There was use for such men towards the south, and many such were redeemed from gambling hells or dragged from the stews, by a power, of which they knew nothing but its munificence and its imperious dictation.

Mark Catesby was a man capable of much that was both good and evil, as are all those who are capable of anything worth mentioning. His family was good; his father, a wealthy Englishman, had brought over his property to this country, along with his prejudices and habits. He had settled in New-York, as metropolitan, and lived in lordly style. He was munificent as he was haughty, and had one vice which soon told upon a large estate.

He gambled desperately, and died with the reputation of great wealth, leaving his son to inherit both his vices and his insolvency.

The son inherited both his vices and his virtues, but a poor sister was all that was left now to love. He became more reckless than before, after the last blow that took from the two their only surviving relation on the continent, and, in the heat of wine, made a heavy bet, that ruined him utterly. His sister was an accomplished artist, and surveyed with comparative calmness the wreck of everything, and bravely struggled to uphold the brother who was so dear to her.

He was a reckless young man, haughty to excess, and filled with a blind family pride. When the great misfortune had been fully realized by them both, it was finally determined, amidst his despair, through the advice of their old family lawyer, that the young man should commence the practice of a profession he had studied with effect—the law. The brave young sister persuaded him too, after a long struggle, to permit her to trust her own support to her pencil.

Such were the determinations on all sides, when a mysterious intervention came to give a new direction to events. A duel, attended with shocking and fatal results, occurred. It had grown out of the gambling debts of Mark, and of course left the already gloomy condition of things involved in still greater gloom. He was not a party, but the cause, and as the survivor had taken himself out of the way, he alone was left to bear the blame.

To take the most reasonable view of the case, as Mark was the only party left, accessory to the fact, all the public indignation and regrets were visited upon his devoted head. He was denounced in every way, and shamefully persecuted by the press, until his frank and sagacious friend, the old family lawyer, advised him, by all means, to go from the city, and commence a career somewhere else, under more favorable auspices. Although the good old man was willing to do anything in his power, or within the limit of his means, to assist the son of his formerly munificent patron, yet the truth was, that his own benevolent habits had so straitened his resources, that he could do little more than advise.

It was under these circumstances, that Mark one day received, to his great astonishment, a letter containing a draft for a considerable sum. The letter bore the city post mark, and gave no explanation, further than the words:—

"Go to New-Orleans; a good practice awaits you. Be silent, and you shall hear again."

The sum was sufficient to rescue him from his embarrassments, and to leave his sister in comfort; but yet this mysterious donation both shocked his pride and roused his anger. What could it mean? Who should dare insult a Catesby by the offer of such a gift? He was not yet so poor as that! and he threw down the letter in a burst of rage and rushed out of the house. His sister heard his hurried exit, and, entering his room, picked up the letter and draft from the floor. The moment she saw the signature, which was only "Regulus," her face blanched, her eyes shot fire, and she sank upon an ottoman. A shudder ran through her frame—her lids drooped, and for several hours she sat motionless, with her hands clasped before her, while tear after tear coursed each other down her cheeks.

But now the silent struggle was over. She rose with a deep sigh, as her brother's hurried ring was heard, and, taking up the papers, met him in the parlor. He was much flushed, and deeply excited. She took his hand calmly, and led him to the sofa, still holding the papers in her hand.

What was the purport of the long and earnest conversation of these two young persons, we are not prepared at present to reveal. The result was, that the draft was cashed—the sister established as an artist in neat rooms on Broadway, and one week from that time the brother was on his way to New Orleans.

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It was the early spring of this year, but one of those rare days when the sun, tired of his icy bondage, bursts upon the earth with a sudden warmth of glory that startles all nature out of her chill repose into a soft, dreamy state, half waking and half sleeping. Bird, insect, the open blossom, air, cloud and water, responded loving to the call of their mother, thus awakened, and for her sang in chorus songs of sweetest harmony.

Filled with the exquisite loveliness of the day, Catesby lingered upon his accustomed evening ride, falling unconsciously into a sympathy with the hazy dreaminess around him. Lost in the one delightful sense of living, of breathing the fresh, luxurious air, he wandered along the river's bank, utterly unheeding the danger by his side. He rode along the crumbling *levee*, and although a tremendous flood was rising, hurled down from an icy home far back on the mountains of the West, so much was he absorbed as not to notice that the slight embankment along which he rode was trembling beneath his horse's feet. Living and being were enough for him, for Mark had been fortunate lately! and rode with the consciousness of a man well to do in the world. Business had been urged upon him in such an astonishing way, that he could not but regard New-Orleans as a real El Dorado to spirited young lawyers. Although it had usually taken the old-fashioned men of his profession more than half a lifetime to get into a good practice, Mark had found his youthful talent appreciated in so extraordinary a degree, that he had almost come to regard the talent of these "old fogies" of the bar with sovereign contempt. In fact, business had flowed in upon him in a greater than usual proportion, and although he could not help an occasional feeling of distrust and anxiety, in regarding the strange and unsolicited commissions sent to him from unexpected quarters, yet who is really angry with prosperity, in the worldly sense? He congratulated himself upon his own merit and legal skill, and was supremely satisfied that a Catesby could not know want. The fact was, that Mark possessed a great deal of cleverness in his profession, and though his success was rather mysterious and extraordinary for so young a man, and one living, too, in a strange and almost foreign city, yet it was deserved, for the sake of his sister, if not entirely and in strict justice for his own.

It was the year of a tremendous freshet, and the planters, with that sharpened experience which a long series of losses gives, had, for a week past, detected the symptoms of the coming flood, and had been at work with all their force in strengthening the weak places of the levee, in dread of the formidable "*crevasse*." The timbers, ropes, &c., extending over the furious current, were therefore frequent along the bank, but Mark was too much absorbed to notice what was indicated by these signs. His thoughts were in other scenes, and that fair sister that he loved filled all his heart. The young man had never loved with passion. She alone had filled his thoughts as yet, and he had hardly realized that there was a stronger tie on earth. His life had yet been unsettled, though not profligate, in this respect, and as he worshipped that dear sister, so he invested other women with a sacred and delicious veneration, becoming to a nature purely chivalrous.

He looked down into the dark and swollen flood, comparing its onward course to his own wild life. It was still with him the springtime. The summer that could calm those mighty waters into a smooth and placid current had not yet overtaken him.

He had now come in sight of the old and well-known convent. He looked at the curious and familiar building, examining its walls, its windows, its gates, with a sort of dim, prophetic feeling, that somehow with it his own destiny was in some way strangely mingled.

Suddenly the small gateway opened, and a single female came out from the sacred precincts. His heart throbbed, though he could not have told why!

That she was young, he saw by her free, graceful carriage. That she was beautiful, he felt by an admonition stronger than reason. An irrepressible desire to see her, which he probably mistook for natural gallantry, grew within him. He urged his horse onward, and as she was walking in a direction parallel with him, he was soon gratified by the sight of one of the most exquisitely lovely faces that had ever shone upon him this side of dream-land.

And like a dream it vanished—for of a sudden the levee, or raised bank, crumbled beneath his horse's feet, and horse and rider were precipitated into the mad waters.

The current was fearfully swift, and the young man was hurled with stunning violence against some beams that extended beyond the levee over the stream, and which had been used in repairing the damages of the freshet. There were a number of ropes strewed about. The girl, who turned her head at the splash, rushed immediately to the rescue, and screamed at the same time an alarm to some laborers a short distance below. Without waiting, however, for their arrival, she promptly threw a rope to Mark, who, although considerably stunned, had consciousness enough left to grasp it. His horse, snorting and struggling desperately, was swept past and went down the torrent. The frail girl leaned her body against a post which had been sunk as a sort of pivot into the levee for the arms of the rest of the machinery to work upon, and giving the rope a turn about it, was enabled to hold on, even with her small hands, until the laborers came to her aid.

They drew poor Mark up, more dead than alive, for the force of the current had bruised him terribly against the very obstacle that saved him. When he recovered consciousness, he was in a convent, and a fair watcher, with dark, lustrous eyes, was bending over him.

Days passed, and Mark Catesby would have scorned to call himself anything but strong and well had he been in the tent, were the field before him; but it was so beautiful to be an invalid with so gentle a nurse to minister to him, his strength would not come! With ever so cunning a skill let his tonics be prepared by the wise men of medicine, still lingered his strength back in the chamber of sickness.

But this could not last always. He had to get well—poor sinner! —at last—and about this time old Novarrey, the father of this sentimental young lady, made his appearance in New-Orleans, and on the same day, at the Convent. He had a long interview with his daughter, the result of which was rather a significant one. She was immediately removed from the Convent.

Love has strange instincts! Mark was not wrong in obeying the mysterious letter he received about this time, (and, indeed, immediately after the disappearance of this beautiful and tender-seeming hourie, who had haunted his bed-side,) which ordered him immediately to the frontier town of a country then little known, except through vague report.

All that he knew of his love was, that she was a Spaniard—or of Spanish descent. As she was undoubtedly of this race on one side or other, and most probably of an exiled Mexican family, he had a faint hope that he might meet her in the direction indicated by this despotic missive, which he had, by the way, learned to venerate in a singular manner. Commands had come to him by this one formidable signature,—

"Regulus!"

He had tried to disobey. He dared not—and the reason he could not have told, for his life. He did obey. He surrendered his practice—he gave up every thing. *In a word, he went to Texas!*

Our story is here too sadly—we might say, madly true—so far as we can remember the incidents as detailed to us by one of the mutilated survivors of this extraordinary affair.

Our narrator was a member of a distinguished family of the District of Columbia, and had formerly held the rank of lieutenant in the U. S. navy. An ungovernable lust for wild adventure, fired by the vague and bewildering romance which was just beginning to invest all the details we could then obtain of the life upon this dangerous frontier, had induced him to throw up his commission and repair thither, accompanied by a few young adventurers like himself.

They reached San Antonio de Bexar—through great perils—for at that time nearly the whole route was infested by bands of various Indian tribes, that have since been reduced to complete subjection, or entirely exterminated.

The rifle and bowie-knife then constituted the sole law of the land, as they have, indeed, done for years since.

They found the old Spanish town, of nearly three thousand inhabitants, very coolly domineered over by a little squad of eight or ten Americans, who, as military traders, adventurers, and desperadoes in general, carried things with a high hand pretty much in their own way. They ostensibly recognized the city government, as well as that of Mexico; but as they did not hesitate to shoot or bully any one of the officers of either who might venture to make himself too officious, these valorous gentlemen were very glad to wink at any misdemeanors they could not avoid seeing. Though hated by all classes of the Mexicans with a deadly hatred, these adventurers knew too well their own value to labor under any very serious apprehensions of any outbreak of this feeling, farther than an occasional fray in a gambling hell or pulque shop went.

They had to look out, to be sure, in passing dark door-ways or rounding corners, not to hug either too close, for the assassin's blade is the only one the Mexican wields with effect. But this made little difference with these reckless men, who scorned the idea of danger in any form at a Mexican's hand, though they took good care to keep their eyes open, nevertheless.

The true secret of their power lay far enough beyond the civic limits—for the Mexican inhabitants dreaded more than any thing else on this earth—or in purgatory even—the annual descents of the Comanche tribes from their impenetrable mountains. These audacious plunderers had never yet received a single check upon this frontier until the appearance of a few North Americans in Bexar; and though they had received from these some severe lessons, yet they had not yet been entirely sufficient to inspire them with that remarkably wholesome respect for the rifle which they have since exhibited; yet these had nevertheless made them somewhat shy, as the matter between them had finally come to be settled by a sort of tacit arrangement of, "you let me alone—I let you alone."

We cannot say that this agreement had at any time been too strictly kept on either side; but as the bickerings and animosities between the adventurers and the Mexicans had become, day by day, more and more deadly on one side, and ferociously contemptuous on the other, they had at last come to regard the outrages of their natural enemies upon this malignant and treacherous population with a jeering indifference, and enjoyment even, that was terribly galling.

As they now pretty much confined themselves to looking out for their own interests and keeping neutral, the Comanches soon took the hint, and did not disturb them or their property, unless on occasion when the temptation thrown in their way proved too strong, and then I suppose they thought the fault lay most at the door of the Americans—who, knowing their weakness, should have subjected them to so severe a trial: though the result usually was, a sound drubbing the first time they could be caught. Yet as no very serious disparity in accounts had arisen in the long run, both parties were willing to be content in not exacting too strict a settlement *every* time they met.

Matters had been standing in this position for some time, and the Mexicans were becoming rapidly impressed with the profoundest conviction that they had been unduly thankless for the goods the gods had sent them in the person of the redoubtable borderer, Captain Red, or "Little Red-Head," as the Indians had christened him, from the fiery color of his hair—his formidable little band of riflemen—and were accordingly of late fawningly endeavoring to propitiate them and make every amends for the past.

But no! The sturdy and reckless adventurers treated them with more galling mockery, which they bore with only increased servility. No creature on earth is so pitifully subservient as the Mexican when the "time of his fear cometh." They well knew this trait, and greatly amused themselves in drawing out these servile and unconscious traits—which, of course, became more and more ludicrous to them at the usual time—the spring—when the Comanches' descent approached. They heaped indignity after indignity upon them, and though many a furious eye glared from beneath the shadow of a slouched sombrero upon them as they passed, the hand that clutched the assassin's knife dared not strike a blow—they feared them—they hated them—but they needed them!

The disasters of the last two years had cowed them—but well the Americans knew that, once released from their incumbent fear, these treacherous slaves would turn upon them with redoubled vindictiveness, and therefore scorned their fawning, as well as their malignity.

Matters were in about the above position when our informant, with his five comrades, arrived. They were welcomed with that reckless and bantering good-fellowship, which is usually so remarkable towards countrymen, among men placed habitually in circumstances of great danger.

They were forthwith taken in hand, and with a boisterous civility, shown round all the lions of the place—Monte tables—Pulque shops—Cock-pits—the great Cathedral—not forgetting, you may rest assured, the dark-eyed and voluptuous Senoritas.

These preliminaries over—the parties proceeded to business—though in a manner precisely as informal as everything else.

Somebody proposed, that as they were now strong enough to whip all Mexico, with the Comanche nation thrown in, "we do hereby organize for the above purpose!"

As this was received with tremendous applause, and as nobody was of course thought of but Capt. Red—the next question was, "what shall the name be?" Several rather romantic names having been proposed by the younger members, and which did not prove entirely satisfactory to the rest of the company, at last the captain arose. He was a man below the average height, with a head most resembling that of a Scotch terrier, with its wiry bristling hair on fire—except that the bushy, freckled face, and round quick eyes, were dignified by a broad, yet low forehead, of almost snowy whiteness—while the stiff, heavy eye-brows, fairly blazed in contrast along its rim.

This singularly-looking person merely remarked in a sharp, quick voice,

"Boys! it's no use with that nonsense! We're going to take care of a pretty big range around here, and why should'nt we call ourselves *Rangers?*"

"Good!" "good!" "That's the figure!" "That's the name for us!" "Hurrah!—Three cheers for Captain Red!" "Now three for the Texas Rangers!"—was uproariously shouted from as many different voices, and the matter was settled.

This celebrated order, thus originating upon this frontier, lost precious little time in discussing the "articles of war," either on that occasion, or on many a one since, in which they have made themselves felt withal, and that "with a vengeance!"

They now set themselves to work in serious earnest, each man equipping himself at his own expense, to regulate the affairs of the Border. The country, when not scoured by savage tribes, was suffering terribly from the maraudings of cut-throat bands of robbers from the valley of the Rio Grande. These wretches, ferocious as they were cowardly, committed the most horrible outrages upon the feeble and almost defenceless rancheros on the northern side of the Rio Grande, and along the river San Antonio—the Coleto, the Gaudaloupe, and upon the white settlements even of the Colorado, and along the Brazos to the neighborhood of Houston, on the north, and down the whole length of the Nueces on the south. Whenever this daring little band could hear of such depredations in reasonable time for pursuit of the perpetrators, the cry was instantly "to horse!" and away, on their swift and hardy steeds, in the true spirit of the ancient chivalry, they rushed "to the rescue!" It mattered not to them who were the parties—ranchero or white man, so they did not belong to San Antonio—they periled life and limb to avenge their wrongs, and many a wild deed of fierce and summary retribution did they wreak upon those dastardly plunderers, under the valiant lead of the stern and chivalric "Red," whose name grew still more a word of terror to robber or Comanche.

CHAPTER II.

"Los Indios! Los Indios! Garrahcho! Los Indios!" The dreaded cry of alarm, mingled with screams, and wails, and yells of terror, suddenly arose in the quiet, sunny square of San Antonio de Bexar, one fine morning in the early spring. In a moment, above all these sounds, rung out in hoarse, unearthly screeches, the Wooh! woo! woo! woo! wooh! of the Comanche war-whoop—while, driven pell-mell before the long, lithe lances of the marauders—men, women and children, mingled with cattle, horses, mules, pigs and poultry, were tumbled headlong over each other through the narrow streets into the wide square.

A party of Americans, on a carouse in a long, low stone house that fronted the square on the northern side, arose quite deliberately from the table, and, with glasses in hand, stepped, with no very steady gait, to the doors and windows, to see the "sport," as they facetiously called it—for they understood the meaning of such sounds well enough.

Sport for devils it was, with a vengeance! The frightened Mexicans, bewildered by the suddenness of the thing—for this descent was unexpectedly early—and by their terrors together, were running confusedly here and there about the square—while the dark, fantastically bedizened warriors were plunging to and fro upon their swift and active horses, trampling the panic-stricken mass, driving their bloody lances through the nearest victims, of whatever sex, age, or condition, and howling like starved wild beasts with their red jaws amidst a helpless prey.

The scene was sufficiently horrifying to have appalled the most ferocious spirit of ruffianism; but our jollificating Americans,

> "Albeit not used to the melting mood,"

seemed to enjoy it most decidedly.

Some poor wretches rushed towards the door where these drunken madmen stood; one or two pushed them back with their feet—"No! no! you infernal Greasers! you can't get in here! you've got to take it as it comes!" But, to the credit of human nature, Captain Red rushed forward, pushed these brutes aside, and said, "No! no! shame, boys, let them in."

He was obeyed; but with evident reluctance by some. This humane act first attracted the attention of the Comanches to them, for they had been too busy to observe their presence before. The warriors in pursuit of the fugitives galloped almost up to the door, when, recognizing at a glance the dreaded form of Little Red-Head, they set up a yell of surprise and drew back.

In a moment the mass spread, and the shouts of the chiefs soon drew together the scattered warriors. Collected on the opposite side of the square, the Rangers saw, to their no little surprise, what they had not suspected during the confusion, that this was the most formidable body of Indians any one of them had ever seen together. What the precise number might be, no one could do more than make conjectures, and these ran hurriedly through the room, rating them at from three, to five, six, and eight hundred.

To say that these men were any more than surprised, would be absurd, as the sequel will show. They were in a moment or two more boisterous in their hilarity than before, and crowded about the door, drinking and laughing at the forlorn appearance of the killed and wounded Mexicans strewed about the square, and occasionally shouting some half-drunken jibe across the square at the Comanches.

In the mean time the clatter of hoofs—the neighing and bellowing of their frightened owners—had died away through the different streets into which they had made their escape; the crowded fugitives, with their cries of pain, had disappeared together into the houses around and nearest to the square, and only the laughter and shouts of the Americans rose occasionally above the momentary lull, of which the groans from the wounded made a sort of silence.

The Comanches gathered together in a close squad, and seemed to be holding a council of war for a few moments—by gestures, and in such low tones that nothing could be heard from them—when suddenly, like a flock of swallows diving from an old tree-top, they broke up, scattering in all directions to come together again in the middle of the square as suddenly—hooting, yelling, and shaking their lances in the faces, almost, of the Rangers, as they darted past the door of their quarters.

As this was merely bravado, they took no further notice of it than to jeer at them in the most insulting manner; not condescending, even, to step back into the room to fetch their rifles.

But when this insolent challenge to a fight had been repeated several times, and at each with some more insulting demonstration, the majority of the party began to become incensed. They grasped their rifles and were rushing to the door and windows to resent these indignities, when Capt. Red again restrained them. This impunity only increased the insolence of the savages, whose object was clearly to provoke a sally on the part of the fiery Americans; but, if some of the men were not, their Captain was cool enough to understand this very well, and to prevent it, especially as he could clearly perceive their exultation at the thought of having him at such overwhelming advantage.

Such an infernal Babel of whooping screeches, howls and yells, as now filled that square, was probably never heard before from the same number of human throats. They dared not—or rather it is against one of the fixed usages of their warfare—to charge upon a building of any kind, and therefore when they found them coming forth, they changed their tactics essentially, for this seemed too good a chance to entrap their hated foe.

The main body drew back to the other side of the square, and dismounting, laid their bows and lances down at their feet, and then stood with folded arms at the heads of their horses, to signify that they would be contemptuous lookers on, while a party of only twenty picked warriors rode forward at a gallop, and when immediately in front of the door, a fellow among them, who spoke a little Spanish, dared them to come forth and meet them in equal combat, calling them cowards, women, dogs, and every possible obscene epithet, and pointing back to the large body of warriors behind, told them that brave men scorned to fight such white-faced cowards at disadvantage of numbers, and that these would not move from where they were if that great coward chief, Little Red-Head, dared to come forth and prove that he was not a feeble woman, &c. &c.

The Rangers, who had now recovered their good humor, only greeted this ludicrous farce with loud shouts of laughter, and twirled their fingers at them ludicrously.

The savages, rendered furious at this failure of their—as they supposed—profound stratagem, wheeled their horses suddenly, and slapped their breech-clouts at them as they galloped off. At this, the last indignity an Indian can offer to a foe, and which a frontiersman can or will endure, by one simultaneous movement the Rangers sprang to their rifles, and let drive a terrible volley among them, which tumbled nearly a dozen of the rash vaunters from their saddles.

This unexpected retaliation very suddenly waked the Comanches up from the delusion of impunity, and brought back rather emphatically to their memories the kind of persons they were dealing with, for this kind of conclusion had been no part of their calculations. Their object had been to taunt the Rangers forth to meet them on their own, that is, open ground, where they would have all the advantage of numbers and of their peculiar modes of warfare. They had thought that a brave so noted for fierce courage as was the Little Red-Head, would not stop to consider numbers when grossly insulted after the manner in which we have seen, and when invited to come out for an equal fight, but would rush forth with all his men to meet the challenge, when they would have him in their power, as it would only take an instant to regain their arms, leap into their saddles, and be upon them before they could possibly regain shelter. Now, when they saw some of their most noted braves tumbling from their horses as the fruits of their foolish mistake, their rage knew no bounds, but that of usage, which prevented them from storming a fortress of any kind, and they rushed forward with the horrid cries of infuriated demons; and in face of another galling fire from the house, they bore off the bodies of their slain, by this time considerably increased in number, and shaking their lances behind them with diabolical gestures of menace, they passed clattering through the town towards the open plains on the west, while the taunting laugh of the Rangers was shouted in their ears.

They continued for an hour or so to gallop to and fro in swift troops like plovers along the plain, making insulting gestures and uttering cries of defiance in renewed invitation to the Rangers to come forth. Some of the parties, again emboldened by their quiet, re-entered the town, and committed some most infernal outrages upon the poor Mexicans, which was every now and then reported to the Rangers by some breathless messenger—even carrying off a number of handsome Mexican girls. These cool gentry heard all this with the greatest unconcern, and continued their carouse amidst shouts of laughter at the expense of the poor Comanches.

Suddenly the Little Red-Head, whose blood was now up, as he had tasted battle, sprang to his feet as the shrieks of some poor Mexican women, who were being dragged into hateful and hideous captivity, were wafted to his ears—

"Boys, I can't stand this! Let's drive these scoundrels back to their own mountains!"

The words were scarcely spoken, when every man jumped to his feet as by one electric impulse, and sprang for his rifle amidst cries of approval.

"We can whip the whole!"

"That's you, Captain! We're your boys! We'll fan 'em out, the filthy thieves, if they were a thousand."

"Hurrah for our Captain! He's *some* in a briar-patch!"

"We'll teach these dirty copper-heads to come into Baha while Rangers own it! Whoop! whoop! Hurrah, boys! One more glass before we part, to get our horses!" said Captain Red, as he filled his to the brim. The rest followed suit, and in another moment, amidst the sounds of social uproar, these men separated to get their horses to ride on one of the maddest dare-devil chases ever ridden by men before.

It took them but a little while to mount, for a Ranger's horse is always ready at a moment's warning, as well as his arms, and with one wild whoop, which made the terrified Mexicans tremble and slink closer in their corners, they dashed out of town at full speed in the pursuit.

When they emerged from the streets of the town, and its thin straggling suburb of dobey huts, they came abruptly upon the broad plain of the prairie, which, after a short distance, became gradually dotted, at wide intervals, with small islands of timber, called "motts." They saw, to their no small surprise, only a single predatory party, such as we have spoken of; and this seemed to have just issued from the town, and to be encumbered with plunder and prisoners. The hurried supposition was, that the other parties, who had so lately been in sight, must have crossed the San Antonio River above, and be entering the town on the other side.

Be that as it may, had it been one party, or the whole body of the enemy, it would have been all the same to the Rangers—so they dashed at the one in view, and, come what might, they meant to overhaul this one at any rate.

The race soon became exciting—since, as the flying party were evidently encumbered heavily, the Americans gained rapidly upon them, and were beginning to yell, in anticipated triumph, when they reached the larger motts, which are several miles out from the town. Here the fugitives were suddenly joined by another party, which glided out from behind one of them, and seemed to take a portion of the embarrassing burdens upon themselves—by which movement the pace of the first was wonderfully accelerated.

The sight of this accession only increased the enthusiasm of the Americans, who urged the race with yet greater eagerness; for the Indians were just about three to one now, and that would afford them some sport. The distance between the two parties was now considerably increased, for these Indians have a wonderful faculty of getting work out of their tough mountain horses—so much so, indeed, that they usually escape from American horsemen, even when the latter are better mounted.

When the chase had continued for several miles, the Comanches either really were, or appeared to be, losing ground. Their horses flagged in speed considerably, and when this was noticed, Little Red-Head bent forward in his saddle, and, yelling like a madman, lashed his horse until the blood flew at each whacking blow, and with the hoarse cry:

"They're ours! Come on!"

Darted ahead. His party, as much excited as himself, responded until the welkin fairly rang again with their fierce cries. On! on! sweeps the clattering race, hurled headlong over the shaking plain, now beginning to change its character, which, heretofore, had been only diversified by "motts" of timber, scattered promiscuously over the surface; but now they were approaching a long line of thick timber, fenced along its edges by a low chaparral of dense and thorny growth, which was utterly impenetrable to horses, and which the naked Comanches would rather die than attempt to ride through, if they could.

This the Rangers well knew, and they had almost held their breaths as they watched—bending over their horses' heads, with parted lips and straining eyes, to see whether the Indians would head in that direction, where they were as secure as if they had run them against a stone wall. The moment it became certain that this was the direction, there was a universal burst of jeering laughter, rendered savagely hysterical by the excited passions of these wild men.

"Ha! ha! We've got you now!" was almost hissed, in a smothered voice, from between the set teeth of Little Red-Head, as they closed rapidly upon the flying savages, who, exhibiting every sign of terror, began to look back, and drop articles of plunder.

"Ha! peeling—disgorging—are you? I'll disgorge you!"—muttered the leader, as he looked to his rifle, which lay across the saddle before him—

"Let out another link, boys!"

He shouted in a deep tone, as they neared the wood, and were now within rifle shot. The eager men were beginning to handle their rifles—

"Hold on! Keep your horses to the work! Time enough when we're among them! They can't escape!" was the prompt command.

At this moment the Indians reached the timber, and, one after another, their dark forms disappeared within its seemingly impenetrable bosom—like a great black serpent, gliding into its shadowy den. To describe the yell of infuriated astonishment—the blank, pale look of surprise, which the Rangers exchanged during one brief instant of uncertainty, would be impossible. But the stern leader shouted quickly—

"On boys! if they're going below, we'll follow them!"

The men cheered, and they swept after them beneath the wood. One short minute beneath the shadows—a little time of darkened, breathless speed, and they burst into the sunlight of the prairie beyond. Their eyes were dazzled! Their senses stunned! It was but for an instant. The harsh and stunning howl that greeted them to this dazzling light, they had heard before—those dusky, hideous forms, rush upon them from every side—but they had seen their long lances and feathered crowns shake and toss in fight before—and though they came like a torrent closing round them, these brave men were not unnerved!

The ring of their rifles rose in deadly lullaby over the triumphingly howls of successful strategy—recoiling the overwhelming waves in silence for a moment, while the smoke arose—but then the recoil was stayed by the tremendous rush from the circles without—for they were in the very middle of a camp—or rather ambush—of three hundred Comanches, and only those nearest could reach them, of course, but then this rush drove on those before upon them, trampling the bodies of their own slain that had fallen by the first fire, and in spite of the terrible execution done by the pistols of the Rangers, the roaring tide rushed on. The Comanches were wild with ferocious exultation—for here they had, at last, entrapped their formidable and most audacious foe, the Little Red-Head, whose fiery scalp was worth the feathered coronet of a chief to any one of them. Terribly these barbaric billows swayed and rolled before the murderous fire of fifteen hemmed in and desperate men.

The pistols soon became useless. Recoil after recoil of the Indians had been driven in, yet the relentless thirst for vengeance and that fiery scalp grew more and more unappeasable; and though lance grated against lance in the bodies of Ranger after Ranger, and arrows flew like hail, still this strange and furious fight went on. The Rangers had drawn their heavy bowie-knives, and laid about them with desperate strength, clipping off the lance-heads like carrot-tops, as they were frequently crossed above them in the wild tumultuous struggle.

It was a volcanic chaos of fringed buckskins—breech-clouts—streaming feathers—rifles—lances—pistols—arrows—horses—oaths—knives—death-groans—screams—yells and whoops, boiling and tumbling beneath the smiling sun of God's own blessed, gentle spring.

Ah, it was horrible enough!

It would seem as if this presumptuous squad should have been borne down at once, and utterly exterminated by this tremendous pressure—but it should be kept in view, that the Comanches had at that time little knowledge of fire-arms beyond the effects from which they had suffered, or been witnesses of, and therefore greatly amplified them, and indeed held them in a sort of superstitious awe.

Be this as it may, perhaps the world never witnessed—on a small scale, to be sure—a more remarkable instance of an agile, fierce, relentless struggle, than this between these few men and the comparative host by whom they were surrounded. Think of it!—fifteen to three hundred!—taken by surprise, too!

There was one young man in this doomed party who had acted wildly since they set off on this fatal chase. He it was who had whispered hurriedly in the ear of Little Red-Head something that caused his sudden and unexpected proposition to follow the Comanches. He had been one of those who came out in the party with the lieutenant whom I have mentioned as my informant. His real name had not been given. He had been the most eager and rash of the Rangers, and had fought with almost superhuman fierceness. Since the moment of their falling into this ambush, his object had seemed to have been to cut his way through the overwhelming mass in the direction of a group of warriors that took no part in what was going on, but were evidently in charge of the prisoners. He had even taken the lead of his captain, and by his frantic efforts had succeeded in carving a bloody lane through the Indians to this point. They had evidently been impressed with a sort of panic by his incredible fury, and gave way before a desperation which seemed to bear a charmed life. Now was the time to escape, if ever!

But his eager eye had sought for one form among the prisoners. There were but three. The glance was quick as lightning, but seemed to be sufficient.

"Oh God! she is not here!"

He rather shrieked these words than spoke them. He turned ashy pale, and without a word more, or a single groan, pitched forward over the head of his horse among the trampling hoofs. Little Red-Head was at his side when he thus fell without a wound, for, strangely enough, he had as yet entirely escaped. With a strange, sorrowful cry, he reined in his horse, and the last that was seen of Little Red-Head, twenty lances were meeting through his unresisting body; and as the two young men who escaped burst free upon the open ground again, and made off, bleeding with many wounds, the demoniac yells of triumph from the Comanches, echoed horribly in their ears. There was little attempt made to overtake them, and they got in safe—the lieutenant, with the loss of the finger and thumb of one hand, together with half a dozen body wounds, and his friend reeling in the saddle from the loss of blood from as many more.

Thus ended this horrible and strange affair, which, perhaps, has hardly a parallel in any annals. But not the least singular part of it was revealed afterwards.

From papers discovered among the effects of Little Red-Head, it appeared that this young man was Mark Catesby, and that Red was his natural brother—an illegitimate son of old Catesby!

A paper of instructions with regard to Mark was found, too, containing the mysterious signature, "Regulus," and which was worded in the imperious language of entire despotism. What became of the young girl Juliet we may yet hear. That she was snatched up on the street and carried off by the Comanches, is all we can say at present.

ART. III.—INSURANCE OF CHARACTER.

While our Insurance Companies are daily taking risks against fire, life, and the dangers of the sea, there is still one important branch of the business heretofore overlooked in this country, which would materially contribute both to their own profits and the advancement of the industrial interests of the people. We mean that of affording securityship on the bonds of applicants for public offices, banks, &c., or any situation of responsibility,—or the extension of the present system of Insurance, so as to embrace the *character* as well as the *life* of the insured party.

The advantages of such companies are twofold, the benefit resulting not being confined to the party more immediately interested. Relief is at once afforded to many liberal-hearted friends, who have experienced the inconvenience of being often called upon to assume for others, who become candidates for office, a heavy weight of pecuniary responsibility. Here is, of itself, no small inducement to such unlucky wights to become members of an Association of the kind, and thereby diminish their own personal liabilities. The individual insured, by paying a premium for the benefit, is saved either the unpleasant condition of dependence and indebtedness, to which the boon which he is compelled to ask gratuitously from an individual invariably subjects him, or else the humiliating mortification of a refusal. The insurer, instead of becoming individually in danger of suffering from his agency in the matter, throws his annual contribution into the general fund, and shares with a hundred others, not the risk of loss, but the *certainty of a handsome dividend.* To illustrate what may appear to some an extravagant conclusion, let us suppose for a moment, that every bank officer, (to say nothing of officers in various grades and departments of labor, who are required to give security for the faithful discharge of their duties,) instead of having been compelled to incur obligations to individual friends, had been in the habit of paying to an Insurance Company, annually, a per centage on the amount of securityship, for which those individuals have been hitherto *nominally* liable. What a large amount of revenue might have been accumulated to add to the funds of the Company; and what an immense disproportion would this be to the losses incurred, (if any of consequence have been incurred during the last ten or fifteen years.)—Losses by fire, shipwreck, and other casualties, are not only *frequent*, but absolutely *certain* and *inevitable* in the common course of nature. Our banks and corporations, on the contrary, exhibit little or no evidence of the danger to be apprehended from responsibility for the character of their officers. Individual securityship (admitting, of course, some occasional exceptions) has been so far in a great measure nominal. Indeed, so great is the disproportion between the amount of security required in many instances, and the largest possible amount for which the officer can ever become a defaulter, (admitting him to be the very quintessence of knavery!) that the *apparent* responsibility is, to a great extent, nominal, and merely for effect. Still the obligation conferred is not the less binding, as the security is sometimes compelled to prove himself, on oath, to be worth double the already extravagant sum demanded, on his client's bond.

To the poor man, especially, such an institution is most desirable. It is chiefly in subordinate situations, where the salaries are moderate and the amount of security disproportionately large, that the benefits of insuring character are experienced. A man, with a family dependent upon him for support, would cheerfully appropriate, every year, a certain portion of the proceeds of the office which he may seek, in order that he may obtain, for a consideration, that guarantee of character which he would be reluctant to purchase at the expense perhaps of his own independence, or at any rate, of incurring obligation to a friend or patron.

There is but one institution of the kind that we know of in the world, and we have been at some difficulty to ascertain definitely the precise *modus operandi* by which its movements are regulated. The Guarantee Society of London was established in 1840. This Society is empowered to give security for the fidelity of persons holding situations of trust where securities are required, on the annual payment of a stipulated rate per cent. Security is granted to all approved persons employed by public companies, by the great trading and banking interests in London and the country; also to persons in any capacity, either at home or abroad, who may be called upon to furnish security to their employers, for honesty and the faithful performance of their duties. No demand is made for stamps, legal charge or otherwise, in addition to the premium. Forms of proposal, or other information, are furnished by the Secretary, Thomas Dodgson—office, 19 Birchin Lane, and by the Society's agents in all the principal cities throughout the kingdom. These forms embrace all necessary particulars relative to the condition of the applicant—age, residence, occupation, standing in respect to character and habits, relations in life, and extent of responsibility attached to the office. The premium which the office-holder pays, is graduated in reference to these attendant circumstances; so that, instead of the applicant obtaining accommodation in proportion to his means, it is rather according to the estimated risk which the Company undertakes in becoming responsible for the honesty of the insured. One whose character is above suspicion in the community in which he resides, would thus become entitled to be insured at a lower rate of premium than his less circumspect neighbor—a decided improvement upon the policy of banking privileges, which often reverses the picture.

The salutary effect of such an enlargement of the benefits of insurance, would, it is natural to suppose, be soon felt, in the more favorable tone which it would impart to the general aspect of business, and the influence which it would exert in placing the poor man, without means or friends, and him who is blessed with both, on the same footing. Many worthy and capable men, whose qualifications would confer dignity upon the offices to which they may be chosen, are deterred from offering their names for office, through an indisposition to place themselves in situations where they must become indebted for favors. And instances have often occurred, where persons who have been unanimously called to fill such positions have been compelled to decline for the same reason. The per centage of insurance in such cases may be graduated, in reference to the known and acknowledged character and standing of the applicant; and the risk incurred (at least in the community where we have enjoyed the most opportunities of observation) would be far less than that involved in any other contingency provided against by associations now in existence.

There are many in every community who feel deeply the embarrassment of being frequently called upon to assume the responsibilities of securityship. Unbounded as may be the confidence reposed in the integrity of a friend whom he may desire to serve, the individual insurer of character feels it to be an investment which yields no premium, and may, one day or other, through some accident by no means affecting his friend's integrity, reduce him and his family to beggary. A single loss of a few thousands, by fire or any other catastrophe, may break an individual, but would be an every-day trifle to a wealthy corporation. The advantage of association, for any object, cannot, of course, be questioned in this age of the world. To both the insurer and insured, then, the system proposed would appear to be a blessing. The former is subjected to far less risk, the latter is relieved of his unpleasant position of dependence. Such an improvement in the financial condition of society is worth striving after. No better mode of investment can be devised, whether for capitalists or every citizen who has the means of purchasing a single share. Many of our citizens with very moderate means would willingly unite in such an organization, if those more able, and possessing the requisite means and influence, would only take the lead. We have had occasion before, at the suggestion of others, to present this subject for consideration through the medium of the press, and now would most respectfully invite the views of our friends with regard to it, in your columns. The proposition strikes us as especially adapted to the interests of the industrial pursuits of our times, one of the great objects which it is the province and duty of the press to watch over and foster. An association such as it contemplates, would be one of general public utility, inasmuch as the plan involves the encouragement of industry and economy, and the equitable division of labor—two essential elements in the politico-economical organization of wealth.

ART. IV.—CHANCELLOR HARPER'S MEMOIR ON SLAVERY.

OBJECTION ANSWERED—"THE SLAVE IS CUT OFF FROM THE MEANS OF INTELLECTUAL, MORAL, AND RELIGIOUS IMPROVEMENT, AND IN CONSEQUENCE HIS MORAL CHARACTER BECOMES DEPRAVED, AND HE ADDICTED TO DEGRADING VICES."—(*Part III.*[*])

The slave is cut off from the means of intellectual, moral, and religious improvement, and in consequence his moral character becomes depraved, and he addicted to degrading vices. The slave receives such instruction as qualifies him to discharge the duties of his particular station. The Creator did not intend that every individual human being should be highly cultivated, morally and intellectually, for, as we have seen, he has imposed conditions on society which would render this impossible. There must be general mediocrity, or the highest cultivation must exist along with ignorance, vice, and degradation. But is there, in the aggregate of society, less opportunity for intellectual and moral cultivation, on account of the existence of slavery? We must estimate institutions from their aggregate of good or evil. I refer to the views which I have before expressed to this society. It is by the existence of slavery, exempting so large a portion of our citizens from the necessity of bodily labor, that we have a greater proportion than any other people, who have leisure for intellectual pursuits, and the means of attaining a liberal education. If we throw away this opportunity, we shall be morally responsible for the neglect or abuse of our advantages, and shall most unquestionably pay the penalty. But the blame will rest on ourselves, and not on the character of our institutions.

I add further, notwithstanding that *equality* seems to be the passion of the day, if, as Providence has evidently decreed, there can be but a certain portion of intellectual excellence in any community, it is better that it should be *unequally* divided. It is better that a part should be fully and highly cultivated, and the rest utterly ignorant. To constitute a society, a variety of offices must be discharged, from those requiring but the lowest degree of intellectual power, to those requiring the very highest, and it should seem that the endowments ought to be apportioned according to the exigencies of the situation. In the course of human affairs, there arise difficulties which can only be comprehended or surmounted by the strongest native power of intellect, strengthened by the most assiduous exercise, and enriched with the most extended knowledge; and even these are sometimes found inadequate to the exigency. The first want of society is—leaders. Who shall estimate the value to Athens, of Solon, Aristides, Themistocles, Cymon or Pericles? If society have not leaders qualified as I have said, they will have those who will lead them blindly to their loss and ruin. Men of no great native power of intellect, and of imperfect and superficial knowledge, are the most mischievous of all—none are so busy, meddling, confident, presumptuous and intolerant. The whole of society receives the benefit of the exertions of a mind of extraordinary endowments. Of all communities, one of the least desirable would be, that in which imperfect, superficial, half-education should be universal. The first care of a state which regards its own safety, prosperity and honor, should be, that when minds of extraordinary power appear—to whatever department of knowledge, art or science their exertions may be directed—the means should be provided of their most consummate cultivation. Next to this, that education should be as widely extended as possible.

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[*] For Part II, see vol. viii., p. 339.

Odium has been cast upon our legislation on account of its forbidding the elements of education to be communicated to slaves. But in truth, what injury is done to them by this? He who works during the day with his hands, does not read in intervals of leisure for his amusement, or the improvement of his mind—or the exceptions are so very rare as scarcely to need the being provided for. Of the many slaves whom I have known capable of reading, I have never known one to read anything but the Bible, and this task they impose on themselves as matter of duty. Of all methods of religious instruction, however, this, of reading for themselves, would be the most inefficient—their comprehension is defective, and the employment is to them an unusual and laborious one. There are but very few who do not enjoy other means, more effectual for religious instruction. There is no place of worship opened for the white population from which they are excluded. I believe it a mistake, to say that the instructions there given are not adapted to their comprehension, or calculated to improve them. If they are given as they ought to be, practically and without pretension, and are such as are generally intelligible to the free part of the audience, comprehending all grades of intellectual capacity, they will not be unintelligible to slaves. I doubt whether this be not better than instruction, addressed specially to themselves, which they might look upon as a device of the master's, to make them more obedient and profitable to himself. Their minds, generally, show a strong religious tendency, and they are fond of assuming the office of religious instructors to each other; and perhaps their religious notions are not much more extravagant than those of a large portion of the free population of our country. I am not sure that there is a much smaller proportion of them than of the free population, who make some sort of religious profession. It is certainly the master's *interest* that they should have proper religious sentiments, and if he fails in his duty towards them, we may be sure that the consequences will be visited not upon them, but upon him.

If there were any chance of their elevating their rank and condition in society, it might be matter of hardship, that they should be debarred those rudiments of knowledge which open the way to farther attainments. But this they know cannot be, and that farther attainments would be useless to them. Of the evil of this, I shall speak hereafter. A knowledge of reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic, is convenient and important to the free laborer, who is the transactor of his own affairs, and the guardian of his own interests—but of what use would they be to the slave? These alone do not elevate the mind or character, if such elevation were desirable.

If we estimate their morals according to that which should be the standard of a free man's morality, then I grant they are degraded in morals—though by no means to the extent which those who are unacquainted with the institution seem to suppose. We justly suppose, that the Creator will require of man the performance of the duties of the station in which his Providence has placed him, and the cultivation of the virtues which are adapted to their performance; that He will make allowance for all imperfection of knowledge, and the absence of the usual helps and motives which lead to self-correction and improvement. The degradation of morals relates principally to loose notions of honesty, leading to petty thefts; to falsehood and to licentious intercourse between the sexes. Though with respect even to these, I protest against the opinion, which seems to be elsewhere entertained, that they are universal, or that slaves, in respect to them, might not well bear a comparison with the lowest laborious class of other countries. But certainly there is much dishonesty, leading to petty thefts. It leads, however, to nothing else. They have no contracts or dealings which might be a temptation to fraud, nor do I know that their characters have any tendency that way. They are restrained by the constant, vigilant, and interested superintendence which is exercised over them, from the commission of offences of greater magnitude—even if they were disposed to them—which I am satisfied they are not. Nothing is so rarely heard of as an atrocious crime committed by a slave; especially since they have worn off the savage character which their progenitors brought with them from Africa. Their offences are confined to petty depredations, principally for the gratification of their appetites, and these, for reasons already given, are chiefly confined to the property of their owner, which is most exposed to them. They could make no use of a considerable booty, if they should obtain it. It is plain that this is a less evil to society, in its consequences and example, than if committed by a freeman, who is a master of his own time and actions. With reference to society, then, the offence is less in itself—and may we not hope it is less in the sight of God? A slave has no hope that, by a course of integrity, he can materially elevate his condition in society, nor can his offence materially depress it, or affect his means of support, or that of his family. Compared to the freeman, he has no character to establish or to lose. He has not been exercised to self-government, and being without intellectual resources, can less resist the solicitations of appetite. Theft in a freeman is a crime; in a slave, it is a vice. I recollect to have heard it said, in reference to some question of a slave's theft, which was agitated in a court,—"Courts of Justice have no more to do with a slave's stealing, than with his lying—that is a matter for the domestic forum." It was truly said—the theft of a slave is no offence against society. Compare all the evils resulting from this, with the enormous amount of vice, crime and depravity, which in an European, or one of our Northern cities, disgusts the moral feelings, and render life and property insecure. So with respect to his falsehood. I have never heard or observed that slaves have any particular proclivity to falsehood, unless it be in denying or concealing their own offences, or those of their fellows. I have never heard of falsehood told by a slave for a malicious purpose. Lies of vanity are sometimes told, as among the weak and ignorant of other conditions. Falsehood is not attributed to an individual charged with an offence before a Court of Justice, who pleads *not guilty*—and certainly the strong temptation to escape punishment, in the highest degree extenuates, if it does not excuse, falsehood told by a *slave*. If the object be to screen a fellow slave, the act bears some semblance of fidelity, and, perhaps, truth could not be told without breach of confidence. I know not how to characterize the falsehood of a slave.

It has often been said by the denouncers of slavery, that marriage does not exist among slaves. It is difficult to understand this, unless wilful falsehood were intended. We know that marriages are contracted; may be, and often are, solemnized with the forms usual among other classes of society, and often faithfully adhered to during life. The law has not provided for making those marriages indissoluble, nor could it do so. If a man abandons his wife, being without property, and being both property themselves, he cannot be required to maintain her. If he abandons his wife, and lives in a state of concubinage with another, the law cannot punish him for bigamy. It may, perhaps, be meant that the chastity of wives is not protected by law from the outrages of violence. I answer, as with respect to their lives, that they are protected by manners, and their position. Who ever heard of such outrages being offered? At least as seldom, I will venture to say, as in other communities of different forms of polity. One reason, doubtless, may be, that often there is no disposition to resist. Another reason, also, may be, that there is little temptation to such violence, as there is so large a proportion of this class of females who set little value on chastity, and afford easy gratification to the hot passions of men. It might be supposed, from the representations of some writers, that a slave-holding country were one wide stew for the indulgence of unbridled lust. Particular instances of intemperate and shameless debauchery are related, which may perhaps be true, and it is left to be inferred that this is the universal state of manners. Brutes and shameless debauchees there are in every country; we know that if such things are related as general or characteristic, the representation is false. Who would argue from the existence of a Col. Chartres in England, or of some individuals who might, perhaps, be named in other portions of this country, of the horrid dissoluteness of manners occasioned by the want of the institution of Slavery? Yet the argument might be urged quite as fairly, and really it seems to me with a little more justice—for there such depravity is attended with much more pernicious consequences. Yet let us not deny or extenuate the truth. It is true that in this respect the morals of this class are very loose, (by no means so universally so as is often supposed,) and that the passions of men of the superior caste, tempt and find gratification in the easy chastity of the females. This is evil, and to be remedied, if we can do so, without the introduction of greater evil. But evil is incident to every condition of society, and, as I have said, we have only to consider in which institution it most predominates.

Compare these prostitutes of our country, (if it is not injustice to call them so,) and their condition with those of other countries—the seventy thousand prostitutes of London, or of Paris, or the ten thousand of New-York, or our other Northern cities. Take the picture given of the first from the author whom I have before quoted. "The laws and customs of England, conspire to sink this class of English women into a state of vice and misery, below that which necessarily belongs to their condition. Hence, their extreme degradation, their troopers' oaths, their love of gin, their desperate recklessness, and the shortness of their miserable lives."

"English women of this class—or rather girls, for few of them live to be women—die like sheep with the rot; so fast that soon there would be none left, if a fresh supply were not obtained equal to the number of deaths. But a fresh supply is always obtained without the least trouble: seduction easily keeps pace with prostitution or mortality. Those that die are, like factory children that die, instantly succeeded by new competitors for misery and death." There is no hour of a summer's or a winter's night, in which there may not be found in the streets a ghastly wretch, expiring under the double tortures of disease and famine. Though less aggravated in its features, the picture of prostitution in New-York or Philadelphia would be of like character.

In such communities, the unmarried woman who becomes a mother, is an outcast from society—and though sentimentalists lament the hardship of the case, it is justly and necessarily so. She is cut off from the hope of useful and profitable employment, and driven by necessity to further vice. Her misery, and the hopelessness of retrieving, render her desperate, until she sinks into every depth of depravity, and is prepared for every crime that can contaminate and infest society. She has given birth to a human being, who, if it be so unfortunate as to survive its miserable infancy, is commonly educated to a like course of vice, depravity and crime.

Compare with this the female slave under similar circumstances. She is not a less useful member of society than before. If shame be attached to her conduct, it is such a shame as would be elsewhere felt for a venial impropriety. She has not impaired her means of support, nor materially impaired her character, or lowered her station in society; she has done no great injury to herself, or any other human being. Her offspring is not a burden, but an acquisition to her owner; his support is provided for, and he is brought up to usefulness; if the fruit of intercourse with a freeman, his condition is, perhaps, raised somewhat above that of his mother. Under these circumstances, with imperfect knowledge, tempted by the strongest of human passions—unrestrained by the motives which operate to restrain, but are so often found insufficient to restrain the conduct of females elsewhere, can it be matter of surprise that she should so often yield to the temptation? Is not the evil less in itself, and in reference to society—much less in the sight of God and man? As was said of theft—the want of chastity, which among females of other countries is sometimes vice, sometimes crime—among the free of our own, much more aggravated; among slaves, hardly deserves a harsher term than that of weakness. I have heard of complaint made by a free prostitute, of the greater countenance and indulgence shown by society towards colored persons of her profession, (always regarded as of an inferior and servile class, though individually free,) than to those of her own complexion. The former readily obtain employment; are even admitted into families, and treated with some degree of kindness and familiarity, while any approach to intercourse with the latter is shunned as contamination. The distinction is habitually made, and it is founded on the unerring instinct of nature. The colored prostitute is, in fact, a far less contaminated and depraved being. Still many, in spite of temptation, do preserve a perfectly virtuous conduct, and I imagine it hardly ever entered into the mind of one of these, that she was likely to be forced from it by authority or violence.

It may be asked, if we have no prostitutes from the free class of society among ourselves? I answer, in no assignable proportion. With general truth, it might be said, that there are none. When such a case occurs, it is among the rare evils of society. And apart from other and better reasons, which we believe to exist, it is plain that it must be so, from the comparative absence of temptation. Our brothels, comparatively very few—and these should not be permitted to exist at all—are filled, for the most part, by importation from the cities of our confederate States, where Slavery does not exist. In return for the benefits which they receive from our Slavery, along with tariffs, libels, opinions moral, religious or political—they furnish us also with a supply of thieves and prostitutes. Never, but in a single instance, have I heard [illegible] an imputation on the general purity of manners among the free females of the slave-holding States. Such an imputation, however, and made in coarse terms, we have never heard here—*here* where divorce was never known—where no Court was ever polluted by an action for criminal conversation with a wife—where it is related rather as a matter of tradition, not unmingled with wonder, that a Carolinian woman of education and family, proved false to her conjugal faith—an imputation deserving only of such reply as self-respect would forbid us to give, if respect for the author of it did not. And can it be doubted, that this purity is caused by, and is a compensation for the evils resulting from the existence of an enslaved class of more relaxed morals?

It is mostly the warm passions of youth which give rise to licentious intercourse. But I do not hesitate to say, that the intercourse which takes place with enslaved females is less depraving in its effects than when it is carried on with females of their own caste. In the first place, as like attracts like, that which is unlike repels; and though the strength of passion be sufficient to overcome the repulsion, still the attraction is less. He feels that he is connecting himself with one of an inferior and servile caste, and that there is something of degradation in the act. The intercourse is generally casual; he does not make her habitually an associate, and is less likely to receive any taint from her habits and manners. He is less liable to those extraordinary fascinations with which worthless women sometimes entangle their victims, to the utter destruction of all principle, worth, and vigor of character. The female of his own race offers greater allurements. The haunts of vice often present a show of elegance, and various luxury tempts the senses. They are made an habitual resort, and their inmates associates, till the general character receives a taint from the corrupted atmosphere. Not only the practice is licentious, but the understanding is sophisticated; the moral feelings are bewildered, and the boundaries of virtue and vice confused. Where such licentiousness very extensively prevails, society is rotten to the heart.

But is it a small compensation for the evils attending the relation of the sexes among the enslaved class, that they have universally the opportunity of indulging the first instinct of nature, by forming matrimonial connections? What painful restraint—what constant effort to struggle against the strongest impulses, are habitually practised elsewhere, and by other classes! And they must be practised, unless greater evils would be encountered. On the one side, all the evils of vice, with the miseries to which it leads—on the other, a marriage cursed and made hateful by want—the sufferings of children, and agonizing apprehensions concerning their future fate. Is it a small good, that the slave is free from all this? He knows that his own subsistence is secure, and that his children will be in as good a condition as himself. To a refined and intellectual nature, it may not be difficult to practise the restraint of which I have spoken. But the reasoning from such to the great mass of mankind is most fallacious. To these, the supply of their natural and physical wants, and the indulgence of the natural domestic affections, must, for the most part, afford the greatest good of which they are capable. To the evils which sometimes attend their matrimonial connections, arising from their looser morality, slaves, for obvious reasons, are comparatively insensible. I am no apologist for vice, nor would I extenuate the conduct of the profligate and unfeeling, who would violate the sanctity of even these engagements, and occasion the pain which such violations no doubt do often inflict. Yet such is the truth, and we cannot make it otherwise. We know that a woman's having been before a mother, is very seldom indeed an objection to her being made a wife. I know perfectly well how this will be regarded by a class of reasoners or declaimers, as imposing a character of deeper horror on the whole system; but still, I will say, that if they are to be exposed to the evil, it is mercy that the sensibility to it should be blunted. Is it no compensation, also, for the vices incident to slavery, that they are, to a great degree, secured against the temptation to greater crimes and more atrocious vices, and the miseries which attend them; against their own disposition to indolence, and the profligacy which is its common result?

But if they are subject to the vices, they have also the virtues of slaves. Fidelity—often proof against all temptation, even death itself—an eminently cheerful and social temper—what the Bible imposes as a duty, but which might seem an equivocal virtue in the code of modern morality—submission to constituted authority, and a disposition to be attached to, as well as to respect those whom they are taught to regard as superiors. They may have all the knowledge which will make them useful in the station in which God has been pleased to place them, and may cultivate the virtues which will render them acceptable to him. But what has the slave of any country to do with heroic virtues, liberal knowledge, or elegant accomplishments? It is for the master—arising out of his situation—imposed on him as duty—dangerous and disgraceful if neglected—to compensate for this, by his own more assiduous cultivation of the more generous virtues and liberal attainments.

It has been supposed one of the great evils of slavery, that it affords the slave no opportunity of raising himself to a higher rank in society, and that he has, therefore, no inducement to meritorious exertion, or the cultivation of his faculties. The indolence and carelessness of the slave, and the less productive quality of his labor, are traced to the want of such excitement. The first compensation for this disadvantage is his security. If he can rise no higher, he is just in the same degree secured against the chances of falling lower. It has been sometimes made a question whether it were better for man to be freed from the perturbations of hope and fear, or to be exposed to their vicissitudes. But I suppose there could be little question with respect to a situation in which the fears must greatly predominate over the hopes. And such I apprehend to be the condition of the laboring poor in countries where slavery does not exist. If not exposed to present suffering, there is continual apprehension for the future—for themselves—for their children—of sickness and want, if not of actual starvation. They expect to improve their circumstances! Would any one person of ordinary candor say, that there is one in a hundred of them who does not well know, that with all the exertion he can make, it is out of his power materially to improve his circumstances? I speak not so much of menial servants, who are generally of a superior class, as of the agricultural and manufacturing laborers. They labor with no such view. It is the instinctive struggle to preserve existence, and when the superior efficiency of their labor over that of our slaves is pointed out, as being animated by a free man's hopes, might it not well be replied—it is because they labor under a sterner compulsion. The laws interpose no obstacle to their raising their condition in society. 'T is a great boon—but as to the great mass, they know that they never will be able to raise it—and it should seem not very important in effect, whether it be the interdict of law, or imposed by the circumstances of the society. One in a thousand is successful. But does his success compensate for the sufferings of the many who are tantalized, baffled, and tortured in vain attempts to attain a like result? If the individual be conscious of intellectual power, the suffering is greater. Even where success is apparently attained, he sometimes gains it but to die—or with all capacity to enjoy it exhausted—worn out in the struggle with fortune. If it be true that the African is an inferior variety of the human race, of less elevated character and more limited intellect, is it not desirable that the inferior laboring class should be made up of such who will conform to their condition without painful aspirations and vain struggles?

The slave is certainly liable to be sold. But perhaps it may be questioned whether this is a greater evil than the liability of the laborer, in fully peopled countries, to be dismissed by his employer, with the uncertainty of being able to obtain employment, or the means of subsistence, elsewhere. With us, the employer cannot dismiss his laborer without providing him with another employer. His means of subsistence are secure, and this is a compensation for much. He is also liable to be separated from wife or child—though not more frequently, that I am aware of, than the exigency of their condition compels the separation of families among the laboring poor elsewhere—but from native character and temperament, the separation is much less severely felt. And it is one of the compensations, that he may sustain these relations without suffering a still severer penalty for the indulgence.

The love of liberty is a noble passion—to have the free, uncontrolled disposition of ourselves, our words and actions. But, alas! it is one in which we know that a large portion of the human race can never be gratified. It is mockery to say that the laborer anywhere has such disposition of himself—though there may be an approach to it in some peculiar, and those, perhaps, not the most desirable, states of society. But unless he be properly disciplined and prepared for its enjoyment, it is the most fatal boon that could be conferred—fatal to himself and others. If slaves have less freedom of action than other laborers, which I by no means admit, they are saved in a great degree from the responsibility of self-government, and the evils springing from their own perverse wills. Those who have looked most closely into life, and know how great a portion of human misery is derived from these sources—the undecided and wavering purpose—producing ineffectual exertion, or indolence with its thousand attendant evils—the wayward conduct—intemperance or profligacy—will most appreciate this benefit. The line of a slave's duty is marked out with precision, and he has no choice but to follow it. He is saved the double difficulty, first of determining the proper course for himself, and then of summoning up the energy which will sustain him in pursuing it.

If some superior power should impose on the laborious poor of any other country, this as their unalterable condition—you shall be saved from the torturing anxiety concerning your own future support, and that of your children, which now pursues you through life and haunts you in death—you shall be under the necessity of regular and healthful, though not excessive labor—in return, you shall have the ample supply of your natural wants—you may follow the instinct of nature in becoming parents, without apprehending that this supply will fail yourselves or your children—you shall be supported and relieved in sickness, and in old age wear out the remains of existence among familiar scenes and accustomed associates, without being driven to beg, or to resort to the hard and miserable charity of a work-house—you shall of necessity be temperate, and shall have neither the temptation nor opportunity to commit great crimes, or practise the more destructive vices—how inappreciable would the boon be thought! And is not this a very near approach to the condition of our slaves? The evils of their situation they but lightly feel, and would hardly feel at all, if they were not sedulously instructed into sensibility. Certain it is, that if their fate were at the absolute disposal of a council of the most enlightened philanthropists in Christendom, with unlimited resources, they could place them in no situation so favorable to themselves, as that which they at present occupy. But whatever good there may be, or whatever mitigation of evil, it is worse than valueless, because it is the result of *slavery*.

I am aware, that however often answered, it is likely to be repeated again and again—how can that institution be tolerable, by which a large class of society is cut off from the hope of improvement in knowledge; to whom blows are not degrading; theft no more than a fault; falsehood and the want of chastity almost venial, and in which a husband or parent looks with comparative indifference on that which, to a freeman, would be the dishonor of a wife or child?

But why not, if it produces the greatest aggregate of good? Sin and ignorance are only evils because they lead to misery. It is not our institution, but the institution of nature, that in the progress of society a portion of it should be exposed to want, and the misery which it brings, and therefore involved in ignorance, vice and depravity. In anticipating some of the good, we also anticipate a portion of the evil of civilization. But we have it in a mitigated form. The want and the misery are unknown; the ignorance is less a misfortune, because the being is not the guardian of himself, and partly on account of that involuntary ignorance, the vice is less vice—less hurtful to man and less displeasing to God.

ART. V.—SOUTH AFRICA AND ITS SPORTS.

In the progress of settlement and civilization, the Daniel Boones of our country have been rapidly giving way to sober herdsmen, athletic farmers, and educated country gentlemen; but we are still new enough from the forests to appreciate and enjoy a description of its rare and exciting sports, whenever vouchsafed to us by any of the choice spirits who regard society a restraint, and only feel their being perfect when plunging into the depths of savage wildernesses. Such men exist still, and such there will be while nature shall continue to speak to the heart, and primitive instincts shall not be entirely lost.

We are familiar enough with the description of hunter life in our own wilds—the excitement of the deer hunt, with packed hounds and winding horns—the chase of buffaloes over boundless and ocean-like prairies, the fox, the wolf, and the wild-cat pursuit; but beyond them our sporting experience has had nothing to teach, and we even wonder if there has been ever any sport to vie with ours, since the days when Nimrod came first to be a mighty hunter before the Lord. Let Daniel Boone, and Texas, and Arkansas hold down their heads, and tear away the laurels they have exultingly worn in the fields of adventurous sport, for theirs after all has been but child's play in comparison with that which their brethren beyond the seas have enjoyed. Tell us of your buffaloes, your wild cats, or even your panthers: these are but a vulgar race of monsters, when one may listen to the stories of hunters who, in the wild jungles of Africa, struggle with the veritable "roaring lion" himself, the huge elephant, the leopard, the sea cow, the hippopotamus, and the terrible hyæna of almost fabled reputation and memory.

We have a book before us,* but a few days from the press, which, leaving the common field of adventure, transports us into the depths of the savage wild, among Hottentots and Bushmen, where never before the voice of civilized man was heard, and where, since Adam called them by name, or Noah dismissed them from the Ark, the noblest creations of the forest, in comparison with whom all others are but a pigmy brood, have roamed in their freedom and in their might. A book full of wild interest and excitement is here, and one into which we plunge with a zest which admits of no interval or break.

The author, Roualeyn Gordon Cumming, was an officer in her Majesty's service; but having in his boyhood affected the joys of "salmon fishing and roe stalking," and become an enthusiast in his admiration of nature, and having with his regiment visited the Cape of Good Hope and taken a hand in the chase of antelopes, he could no longer be content with the dull routine of camp life, but sighed for the boundless wilderness beyond it.

In describing to us his outfit and start, he furnishes some interesting facts in regard to the traders who plunge into South Africa to barter the trifles of civilization for ivory, ostrich feathers, etc. These are obtained from the Behuana tribes. Ostrich feathers were formerly valued at £5 to £6 per pound in England, but the demand has greatly fallen off. Good ivory they sell in the neighboring towns at 4s. the pound. In exchange are given beads, guns, wire. clothing; but not tobacco and snuff, as has been asserted, for Mr. Cumming says, "I can scarcely remember having ever obtained the smallest article in barter for either, not even a drink of milk. The natives will receive these articles *gratuitously*, but set no value upon them."

As our author found it expedient to mingle the *utile* with the *dulce*, and was himself no bad or unsuccessful trader, though evidently not prosecuting the business *con amore*, we shall pause a moment for him to describe a scene between buyer and seller in the wilderness, which shows there are barbarian as well as civilized Yankees.

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* Five Years of a Hunter's Life in the Far Interior of South Africa.

A message came from the great chief, Sicomy, and at last the chief himself, who said he had sent men in search of elephants' teeth, and would be ready, without delay, to purchase everything that was offered. Being asked four large bulls' teeth for a musket, he retired to a grove and discoursed with his men several hours on this price. Two of them soon approached the wagon with a bull's tooth each, which the chief argued was a full equivalent. Afterwards a third tusk was brought, and that a small one. A whole day was wasted in this beating down game, and the undaunted Sicomy was ready again early next morning to resume it, by tendering his original offer of two elephants' teeth. A bargain was finally struck for three large teeth, but Sicomy would have a bullet mould into the bargain; and upon the principle of asking the long boat if the ship be given, he insisted also upon a leaden ladle. The following extract is worthy of a place in our pages, relating, as it does, to the novel subject of ivory trading:

"Although I voted the trading an intense bore, it was nevertheless well worth a little time and inconvenience, on account of the enormous profit I should realize. The price I had paid for the muskets was £16 for each case containing twenty muskets, and the value of the ivory I required for each musket was upward of £30, being about 3,000 per cent., which I am informed is reckoned among mercantile men to be a very fair profit. Sicomy was, in those days, in the possession of very large quantities of splendid ivory, and still considerable quantities pass annually through his hands. Since I first visited Bamangwato, and taught the natives the use of fire-arms, they have learned to kill the elephant themselves; but previous to my arrival they were utterly incapable of subduing a full-grown elephant, even by the united exertions of the whole tribe. All the ivory which Sicomy then possessed, and the majority of that which still passes through his hands, is obtained from elephants slain with assagais, by an active and daring race of Bushmen inhabiting very remote regions to the northward and northwest of Bamangwato.

"The manner in which Sicomy obtained this ivory was by sending a party of his warriors to the Bushman, who first obtained the tusks in barter for a few beads, and then compelled some of the poor Bakalahari, or wild natives of the desert, over whom Sicomy conceives he has a perfect right to tyrannize, to bear them on their shoulders across extensive deserts of burning sand to his head-quarters at Bamangwato."

Having fallen in with several nests of ostriches, our author mentions a peculiar propensity of the bird to destroy its eggs, if the nest has been discovered, though not even touched. The nest is scooped in the sand among low bushes, and is about seven feet in diameter. Both cock and hen are employed in the incubation of eggs, and the Bushman finds the egg shell useful for water flasks, cups and dishes. The mode of hunting the ostrich is thus described:

THE OSTRICH.

"A favorite method adopted by the wild Bushman for approaching the ostrich and other varieties of game, is to clothe himself in the skin of one of these birds, in which, taking care of the wind, he stalks about the plain, cunningly imitating the gait and motions of the ostrich

> until within range, when, with a well-directed poisoned arrow from his tiny bow, he can generally seal the fate of any of the ordinary varieties of game. These insignificant looking arrows are about two feet six inches in length; they consist of a slender reed, with a sharp bone head, thoroughly poisoned with a composition, of which the principal ingredients are obtained sometimes from a succulent herb, having thick leaves, yielding a poisonous milky juice, and sometimes from the jaws of snakes. The bow barely exceeds three feet in length; its string is of twisted sinews. When a Bushman finds an ostrich's nest, he ensconces himself in it, and there awaits the return of the old birds, by which means he generally secures the pair. It is by means of these little arrows, that the majority of the fine plumes are obtained which grace the heads of the fair throughout the civilized world."

But we must turn to larger game. The habits of the lion, that king of the forest, are discussed by Mr. Cumming. He had seen the noble beast in every position in his own domains, and contended with and mastered him there. By means of his powerful, though comparatively diminutive structure, the lion is able to contend with the largest of the forest lords, and will dash to the ground and overcome even the towering giraffe. He will master the strongest buffalo, though his favorite choice is the antelope, the gnoo, and the zebra. The males only produce a mane, which is attained in the third year. Their roar is chiefly at night, but on rainy or foggy days it will be heard. The lion's predatory excursions also, are at night; and the more dark and stormy, the better does it accord with his tastes. The glare of his eyes may be seen at a great length, like balls of fire. The female is even more fierce and active than the male. The voice of the lion is thus portrayed by Mr. Cumming:

> "One of the most striking things connected with the lion is his voice, which is extremely grand and peculiarly striking. It consists at times of a low, deep moaning, repeated five or six times, ending in faintly audible sighs; at other times he startles the forest with loud, deep-toned, solemn roars, repeated five or six times in quick succession, each increasing in loudness to the third or fourth, when his voice dies away in five or six low, muffled sounds, very much resembling distant thunder. At times, and not unfrequently, a troop may be heard roaring in concert, one assuming the lead, and two, three, or four more regularly taking up their parts, like persons singing a catch. Like our Scottish stags at the rutting season, they roar loudest in cold, frosty nights; but on no occasions are their voices to be heard in such perfection, or so intensely powerful, as when two or three strange troops of lions approach a fountain to drink at the same time. When this occurs, every member of each troop sounds a bold roar of defiance at the opposite parties; and when one roars, all roar together, and each seems to vie with his comrades in the intensity and power of his voice. The power and grandeur of these nocturnal forest concerts is inconceivably striking and pleasing to the hunter's ear. The effect, I may remark, is greatly enhanced when the hearer happens to be situated in the depths of the forest, at the dead hour of midnight, unaccompanied by any attendant, and ensconced within twenty yards of the fountain which the surrounding troops of lions are approaching. Such has been my situation many scores of times; and though I am allowed to have a tolerably good taste for music, I consider the catches with which I was then regaled as the sweetest and most natural I ever heard."

Having shot a fine large rhinoceros, the author thus speaks of an encounter he had with the lions, the day after, which degenerate men like us must regard as perilous sport:

A LION HUNT.

"On reaching the water, I looked towards the carcass of the rhinoceros, and to my astonishment, beheld the ground alive with large creatures, as though a troop of zebras were approaching the fountain to drink. Kleinboy remarked to me, that a troop of zebras were standing on the height. I answered, 'Yes;' but I knew very well that zebras would not be capering around the carcass of a rhinoceros. I quickly arranged my blankets, pillow and guns in the hole, and then lay down to feast my eyes on the interesting sight before me. It was bright moonlight, as clear as I need wish, and within one night of being full moon. There were six large lions, about twelve or fifteen hyænas, and from twenty to thirty jackals, feasting on and around the carcasses of the three rhinoceroses. The lions feasted peacefully, but the hyænas and jackals fought over every mouthful, and chased one another round and round the carcasses, growling, laughing, screeching, chattering, and howling without any intermission. The hyænas did not seem afraid of the lions, although they always gave way before them; for I observed that they followed them in the most disrespectful manner, and stood laughing, one or two on either side, when any lions came after their comrades to examine pieces of skin or bones which they were dragging away. I had lain watching this banquet for about three hours, in the strong hope that, when the lions had feasted, they would come and drink. Two black and two white rhinoceroses had made their appearance, but, scared by the smell of the blood, they had made off.

"At length the lions seemed satisfied. They all walked about with their heads up, and seemed to be thinking about the water; and in two minutes one of them turned his face toward me, and came on. He was immediately followed by a second lion, and in half a minute by the remaining four. It was a decided and general move; they were all coming to drink right bang in my face, within fifteen yards of me.

"I charged the unfortunate, pale and panting Kleinboy to convert himself into a stone, and knowing, from old spoor, exactly where they would drink, I cocked my left barrel, and placed myself and gun in position. The six lions came steadily on along the stony ridge until within sixty yards of me, when they halted for a minute to reconnoitre. One of them stretched out his massive arms on the rock and lay down; the others then came on, and he rose and brought up the rear. They walked, as I had anticipated, to the old drinking place, and three of them had put down their heads and were lapping the water loudly, when Kleinboy thought it necessary to shove up his ugly head. I turned my head slowly to rebuke him, and again turning to the lions, found myself discovered.

"An old lioness, who seemed to take the lead, had detected me, and, with her head high and her eyes fixed full upon me, was coming slowly round the corner of the little vley to cultivate further my acquaintance! This unfortunate coincidence put a stop at once to all further contemplation. I thought, in my haste, that it was perhaps most prudent to shoot this lioness, especially as none of the others had noticed me. I accordingly moved my arm and covered her; she saw the move and halted, exposing a full broadside. I fired; the ball entered one shoulder and passed out behind the other. She bounded forward with repeated growls, and was followed by her five comrades, all enveloped in a cloud of dust: nor did they stop until they had reached the cover behind me, except one old gentleman, who halted and looked back for a few seconds, when I fired, but the ball went high. I listened anxiously for some sound to denote the approaching end of the lioness, nor listened in vain. I heard her growling and stationary, as if dying. In one minute her comrades crossed the vley a little below me, and made toward the rhinoceros. I then slipped Wolf and Boxer on her scent, and, following them into the cover, found her lying dead within twenty yards of where the old lion had lain two nights before. This was a fine old lioness, with perfect teeth, and was certainly a noble prize; but I felt dissatisfied at not having rather shot a lion, which I had most certainly done, if my Hottentot had not destroyed my contemplation."

We have next an adventure with the porcupine.

PORCUPINE ADVENTURE.

"I had rather an absurd adventure with a porcupine, which cost me my pack-saddle, the only thing of the sort I had in camp. Long before daybreak I saddled up, and rode north with my two after-riders and a spare horse with the pack-saddle. As day dawned, I came upon a handsome old porcupine, taking his morning airing. At first sight he reminded me of a badger. Unwilling to discharge my rifle, as it was probable we were in the vicinity of oryx, I resolved to attempt his destruction with the thick end of my 'jambok,' the porcupine, like the seal, being easily killed with a blow on the nose. I jumped off my horse, and after a short race, in which I tried him with many turns, when he invariably doubled back between my legs, giving me the full benefit of his bristling quills, I succeeded in killing him with the jambok, but not till I had received several wounds in my hands. My boys the while sat grinning in their saddles, enjoying the activity of their 'baas.'"

Having discovered a troop of ten colossal giraffes, or camel-leopards, eighteen feet in height, Mr. Cumming is thrown into a transport of delight; and has given us in vivid colors, an account of the deeply exciting chase which followed.

GIRAFFE HUNT.

"The sensations which I felt on this occasion were different from anything that I had before experienced during a long sporting career. My senses were so absorbed by the wondrous and beautiful sight before me, that I rode along like one entranced, and felt inclined to disbelieve that I was hunting living things of this world. The ground was firm and favorable for riding. At every stride I gained upon the giraffes, and after a short burst at a swinging gallop I was in the middle of them, and turned the finest cow out of the herd. On finding herself driven from her comrades, and hotly pursued, she increased her pace, and cantered along with tremendous strides, clearing an amazing extent of ground at every bound; while her neck and breast, coming in contact with the dead old branches of the trees, were continually strewing them in my path. In a few minutes I was riding within five yards of her stern, and, firing at the gallop, I sent a bullet into her back. Increasing my pace, I next rode alongside, and, placing the muzzle of my rifle within a few feet of her, I fired my second shot behind the shoulder; the ball, however, seemed to have little effect. I then placed myself directly in front, when she came to a walk. Dismounting, I hastily loaded both barrels, putting in double charges of powder. Before this was accomplished, she was off at a canter. In a short time I brought her to a stand in the dry bed of a water-course, where I fired at fifteen yards, aiming where I thought the heart lay, upon which she again made off. Having loaded, I followed, and had very nearly lost her; she had turned abruptly to the left, and was far out of sight among the trees. Once more I brought her to a stand, and dismounted from my horse. There we stood together alone in the wild wood. I gazed in wonder at her extreme beauty, while her soft dark eye, with its silky fringe, looked down imploringly at me, and I really felt a pang of sorrow in this moment of triumph for the blood I was shedding. Pointing my rifle towards the skies, I sent a bullet through her neck. On receiving it, she reared high on her hind legs, and fell backward with a heavy crash, making the earth shake around her. A thick stream of dark blood spouted out from the wound, her colossal limbs quivered for a moment, and she expired."

But the most important of our hunter's labors was in the elephantine line, and he more frequently refers to them in his pages, having, to use his own phrase, "bagged" one hundred of these forest mammoths. The male is much larger than the female. The females of African origin, unlike those of Asia, have tusks as well as the male; and the price of their ivory in the London market is from £28 to £32 per cwt., which is more than the average weight of a tusk, though some have reached 173 pounds. The elephant makes his food of branches, leaves, and roots of trees, and a variety of bulbs, in obtaining which he will turn up the ground with his tusks for acres. He has a great horror of man and herds; will fly at the approach of a child. His timidity confines his resorts to the most remote and inaccessible parts; and the hunter can only, by inconceivable toil and hardship, come upon these retreats. The following is a graphic description of an elephant hunt:

AN ELEPHANT HUNT.

"Presently, on reconnoitering the surrounding country, I discovered a second herd, consisting of five bull elephants, which were quietly feeding about a mile to the northward. The cows were feeding toward a rocky ridge that stretched away from the base of the hillock on which I stood. Burning with impatience to commence the attack, I resolved to try the stalking system with these, and to hunt the troop of bulls with dogs and horses. Having thus decided, I directed the guides to watch the elephants from the summit of the hillock, and with a beating heart I approached them. The ground and wind favoring me, I soon gained the rocky ridge toward which they were feeding. They were now within one hundred yards, and I resolved to enjoy the pleasure of watching their movements for a little before I fired. They continued to feed slowly toward me, breaking the branches from the trees with their trunks, and eating the leaves and tender shoots. I soon selected the finest in the herd, and kept my eye on her in particular. At length two of the troop had walked slowly past at about sixty yards, and the one which I had selected was feeding, with two others, on a thorny tree before me.

"My hand was now as steady as the rock on which it rested; so, taking a deliberate aim, I let fly at her head a little behind the eye. She got it hard and sharp, just where I aimed, but it did not seem to affect her much. Uttering a loud cry, she wheeled about, when I gave her the second ball close behind the shoulder. All the elephants uttered a strange, rumbling noise, and made off in a line to the northward at a brisk, ambling pace, their huge, fan-like ears flapping in the ratio of their speed. I did not wait to load, but ran back to the hillock to obtain a view. On gaining its summit, the guides pointed out the elephants; they were standing in a grove of shady trees, but the wounded one was some distance behind, with another elephant, doubtless its particular friend, who was endeavoring to assist it. These elephants had probably never before heard the report of a gun, and, having neither seen nor smelt me, they were unaware of the presence of man, and did not seem inclined to go any further. Presently my men hove in sight, bringing the dogs; and when these came up, I waited some time before commencing the attack, that the dogs and horses might recover their wind. We then rode slowly toward the elephants, and had advanced within two hundred yards of them, when, the ground being open, they observed us, and made off in an easterly direction; but the wounded one immediately dropped astern, and the next moment was surrounded by the dogs, which, barking angrily, seemed to engross her attention."

We conclude our extracts from these deeply interesting volumes of Mr. Cumming with the following, which relate to the antelope, the crocodile, hippopotamus, leopard, hyæna, etc.

CHASE OF THE LEOPARD.

"On the morning of the 22d I rode into camp, after unsuccessfully following the spoor of a herd of elephants for two days in a westerly course. Having partaken of some refreshment, I saddled up two steeds and rode down the bank of Ngotwani with the Bushman, to seek for any game I might find. After riding about a mile along the river's green bank, I came suddenly upon an old male leopard, lying under the shade of a thorn grove, and panting from the great heat. Although I was within sixty yards of him, he had not heard the horses' tread. I thought he was a lioness, and, dismounting, took a rest in my saddle on the old Gray, and sent a bullet into him. He sprang to his feet, and ran half way down the river's bank, and stood to look about him, when I sent a second bullet into his person, and he disappeared over the bank. The ground being very dangerous, I did not disturb him by following then, but I at once sent Ruyter back to camp for the dogs. Presently he returned with Wolf and Boxer, very much done up with the sun. I rode forward, and on looking over the bank the leopard started up and sneaked off alongside of the tall reeds, and was instantly out of sight. I fired a random shot from the saddle, to encourage the dogs, and shouted to them; they, however, stood looking stupidly round, and would not take up his scent at all. I led them over his spoor again and again, but to no purpose; the dogs seemed quite stupid, and yet they were Wolf and Boxer, my two best."

CROCODILE SHOOTING.

"Presently, looking over the bank, I beheld three enormous crocodiles basking on the sand on the opposite side. I was astonished at their awful appearance and size, one of them appearing to me to be sixteen or eighteen feet in length, with a body as thick as that of an ox. On observing us, they plunged into the dead water by the side of the stream. The next minute, one of them popping up his terrible head in the middle of the stream, I made a beautiful shot, and sent a ball through the middle of his brains. The convulsions of death which followed were truly awful. At first he sank for an instant to the shot, but, instantly striking the bottom with his tail, he shot up above the water, when he struggled violently, sometimes on his back, and then again on his belly, with at one time his head and fore feet above the water, and immediately after his tail and hind legs, the former lashing the water with a force truly astounding. Clouds of sand accompanied him in all his movements, the strong stream carrying him along with it, till at length the struggle of death was over, and he sank to rise no more."

A HERD OF HIPPOPOTAMI.

"I soon found fresh sport, and after holding on for several miles, just as the sun was going down, and as I entered a dense reed cover, I came upon the fresh lairs of four hippopotami. They had been lying sleeping on the margin of the river, and, on hearing me come crackling through the reeds, had plunged into the deep water. I at once ascertained that they were newly started, for the froth and bubbles were still on the spot where they had plunged in. Next moment I heard them blowing a little way down the river. I then headed them, and, with considerable difficulty, owing to the cover and the reeds, at length came right down above where they were standing. It was a broad part of the river, with a sandy bottom, and the water came half way up their sides. There were four of them, three cows and an old bull; they stood in the middle of the river, and, though alarmed, did not appear aware of the extent of the impending danger.

"I took the sea-cow next me, and with my first ball gave her a mortal wound, knocking loose a great plate on the top of her skull. She at once commenced plunging round and round, and then occasionally remained still, sitting for a few minutes on the same spot. On hearing the report of my rifle, two of the others took up stream, and the fourth dashed down the river; they trotted along, like oxen, at a smart pace, as long as the water was shallow."

THE ANTELOPE.

"After several unsuccessful stalks for sable antelope, I at length met with the success my perseverance deserved. Returning in the afternoon of the 20th homeward, I suddenly observed a herd of about ten of them in thick cover on the mountain's ridge. I commenced ascending the rugged acclivity as fast as I could, for the daylight would be gone in a very short time. When I had got within two hundred yards of them, I found it almost impossible to get in any nearer, as I must cross a stony flat in sight of several of the ever-wary does; it was, moreover, now so late that I could not well see the sights of my rifle. I had almost resolved not to disturb them, and to return to camp; on second thoughts, however, I resolved to give it a trial. I made a successful stalk, and crossed this dangerous rocky flat unobserved. There was no moss nor heather under my knees, but a mass of sharp, adamantine fragments of rock, yet this I did not heed."

THE CAMP ROBBED BY HYÆNAS.

"Our dogs kept up an incessant barking during the night, and we imagined that lions were prowling around our camp. In the morning, however, we discovered that we had been favored with the presence of far less illustrious, yet more presuming visitors. A pack of audacious hyænas had visited our fireside, and, not content with cracking and swallowing the bones which they found there, they had eaten our table-cloth, which consisted of the skin of a sable antelope, and carried off the lid of our canteen and two large camp-stools, which I lately had made to order in Colesberg. One of these we had the good fortune to recover, minus the rheimpys; the other will probably be found in after years, and preserved as a Bechuana or Bushman relic.

ART. VI.—RAIL-ROADS AND TRANSPORT, AT HOME AND ABROAD.

In Vol. VII. of the Review, we published an elaborate paper upon the railroads of Great Britain, in which was exhibited the extraordinary progress of that enterprise there, and the almost magical results which have followed. At the present time we shall take a survey of the workings of the same machinery in our own country, as compared with those abroad, prefacing it with some general remarks upon the American system of intercommunication at large.

Soon after the Revolution, New-York and Pennsylvania set about the construction of canals, and so important was the matter of internal communication regarded, in Congress, that the Secretary of State, Mr. Gallatin, was requested, in 1817, to project a general system for the country. The Erie Canal was begun in 1817, and completed in 1825, for the connection of the Hudson with the lakes, at a cost of about twelve millions of dollars, or, including the enlargement in 1835, nearly twenty-five millions of dollars! The total length is 363 miles.

Mr. M. Chevalier, who published, not long since, a work upon the modes of transport in the United States, estimates the length of all the canals at that time, 1843, 4,333, with 2,359 in projection, much of which has since been finished. The total cost, to the time of his estimate, was £27,870,964, or nearly $130,000,000. The canals of the United States to those of Great Britain, compared by population, are in length as 9 to 4, and to those of France as 13 to 4.

The inland steam navigation of the country has also grown to be a subject of proud gratulation, and no nation in the world can at this time vie with us.

Dr. Lardner gives a list of the first class steamers on the Hudson in 1838, and at the present time, which shows, on the single point of length, the following extraordinary improvement:

	Length. feet.	Breadth Beam. feet.		Length. feet.	Breadth Beam. feet.
De Witt Clinton	230	28	Isaac Newton	333	40
Champlain	180	27	Bay State	300	39
Erie	180	27	Empire State	304	39
North America	200	30	Oregon	305	35
Independence	148	26	Hendrick Hudson	320	35
Albany	212	26	C. Vanderbilt	300	35
Swallow	233	22	Connecticut	300	37
Rochester	200	25	Commodore	280	33
Utica	200	21	New World	376	35
Providence	180	27	Alida	286	28

"All the vessels more recently constructed are, accordingly, finished and decorated in the most luxuriant manner. No water communication in the world can compare with them. Nothing can exceed the splendor and luxury of the furniture. Silk velvet, and the most expensive carpeting, mirrors of immense size, gilding and carving are used profusely in their decoration. Even the engine-room in some of them is lined with mirrors. In the Alida, for example, the end of the room containing the machinery is composed of one large mirror, in which the movements of the highly finished machinery are reflected."

On the Mississippi and other western waters, a class of boats, scarcely less splendid, have come into use, but worked upon principles entirely different, and with greatly reduced security to person and life. They are worked with high-pressure steam, without condensation, and to obtain the benefit derived from a vacuum in the low-pressure boats, the steam is worked at an extraordinary pressure, reaching, ordinarily, 150, and sometimes 200 pounds to the square inch. Accidents to these boats are frequent, and occur in a variety of ways. When the boilers are constructed with returning flues, the space left is so small, the slightest variation in the quantity of water contained, or in the trim of the vessel, causes the upper flues to be uncovered, become red hot, and collapse with frightful force and loss of life. And this cause of explosion results from the great accumulation of mud, from the rivers, in the boiler. This cuts the action of the fire off from the water, and concentrates it all upon the iron, which soon becoming red hot, softens and bursts. The remedy is in continually "blowing off," before the mud can accumulate in quantities to be dangerous.

In the better class of boats on the Mississippi river, however, there is a wiser and far more secure system of management of late adopted, and travelers may feel much more at their ease than in former times, since accidents upon these boats are growing very rare. It is a pity the example could not be more widely followed; and that, if the interest of owners be not a sufficient stimulant, some method of coercion has not been devised by government over the refractory. Hundreds of thousands of lives are lost every year by the sheerest negligence, or by the most criminal cupidity. There must be a remedy somewhere, and the calls of humanity demand its early enforcement.

In speaking of the Mississippi boats, Dr. Lardner says: "The magnitude and splendor of these boats is little, if at all inferior to those of the Hudson. They are, however, constructed more with a view to the accommodation of freight, as they carry down the river large quantities of cotton and other produce, as well as passengers, to the port of New-Orleans. Many of these vessels are three hundred feet and upwards in length, and are capable of carrying a thousand tons freight and three or four hundred deck passengers, besides the cabin passengers. The traffic in goods and passengers of the entire extent of the valley of the Mississippi is carried by these vessels, except that portion which is floated down by the stream in a species of raft, called flat boats.

The following statistics, from another source, will show the rapid increase of steam navigation upon Western waters:

In 1815 there were in use about 14 steamboats.
In 1829 " " 200 "
In 1834 " " 230 "
In 1842 " " 450 "
In 1843 " " 600 "
In 1848 " " 1200 "

The number of steamboats running at the present time upon the Western lakes and rivers, is now reckoned at about 1400. Their tonnage is over twice as much as the entire steamboat tonnage of Great Britain, and probably fully equal to the steamboat tonnage of all other parts of the world. The total value annually afloat on all Western waters, is estimated at about $550,000,000.

The progress of railroads in our country has been a subject we have frequently discussed in the pages of the Review, and have furnished all the statistics and information it has been in our power to obtain. No one need be told that this branch of enterprise is but in its infancy among us, whatever its present stature and importance. The great West is an exhaustless field for future developments, though it is now able to show but little. We extract from the work of Dr. Lardner the following pages, which sketch in bold and clear colors the great lines of railway communication which connect the Atlantic states together, or reach backwards from them to the Western valley. It is impossible to do justice to the subject in any less concise description.

"Of the total length of railways which overspread the territory of the Union, more than the half are constructed in the States of Pennsylvania, New York, and those of New-England. The principal centres from which these lines of communication diverge are Boston, New-York, and Philadelphia.

"A considerable extent, though of less importance, diverges from Baltimore; and recently lines of communication of great length have been constructed, from Charleston in South Carolina, and from Savannah in Georgia.

"From Boston three trunk lines issue; the chief of which passes through the State of Massachusetts to Albany, on the Hudson. This line of railway is two hundred miles in length, and appears destined to carry a considerable traffic. Its ramifications southward, through the smaller states of New-England, are numerous, chiefly leading to the ports upon Long Island Sound, which communicate by steamboats with New-York. The first branch is carried from Worcester, in Massachusetts, to New-London on the Sound, where it meets a short steam ferry which communicates with Greenport, at the eastern extremity of Long Island, from which another railway, nearly 100 miles long, is carried to Brooklyn, which occupies the shore of that island immediately opposite New-York, and communicates with the latter city by a steam ferry.

"Thus there is a continued railway communication from Boston to New-York, interrupted only by two ferries.

"Another branch of the great Massachusetts line is carried south from Springfield through Hartford to New-Haven; and a third from Pittsfield to Bridgeport, both the latter places being on the Sound, and communicating with New-York by steamboats.

"The second trunk line from Boston proceeds southward to Providence, and thence to Stonington, from which it communicates by a ferry with the Long Island Railway. This trunk line throws off a branch from Foxburgh to New-Bedford, where it communicates by ferries with the group of islands and promontories clustered round Cape Cod.

"A third trunk line proceeds from Boston through the State of Maine.

"Notwithstanding the speed and perfection of the steam navigation of the Hudson, a railway is now being constructed on the east side of that river to Albany, which will be opened in the course of 1850. The section terminating at New-York is already in operation.

"From Albany an extensive line of railway communication, 323 miles in length, is carried across the entire State of New-York to Buffalo, at the head of Lake Erie, with branches to some important places on the one side and on the other. This line forms the continuation of the western railway, carried from Boston to Albany, and, combined with this latter, completes the continuous railway communication from the harbor of Boston to that of Buffalo on Lake Erie, making an entire length of railway communication from Boston to Buffalo, of 523 miles.

"The branches constructed from this trunk line are not numerous. There is one from Schenectady to Troy, on the Hudson, and another from Schenectady to Saratoga; another from Syracuse to Oswego, on Lake Ontario; and another from Buffalo to the Falls of Niagara, and from thence to Lockport.

"Not content with this fine line of communication to the Western Lakes, the commercial interests of New-York have projected, and in part constructed, a more direct route from New-York to Buffalo, independent of the Hudson.

"The disadvantage of this river as a sole means of communication is, that, during a certain portion of the winter, all traffic upon it is suspended by frost. In this case, the line of railway communicating already from Bridgeport and New-Haven to Albany, has been resorted to by travelers. However, it may be regarded as certain, that the intermediate traffic of the State of New-York along the direct line of railway now in progress from that city to Buffalo, will very speedily be sufficient for the support of an independent line of railway.

"The immediate environs of New-York are served by several short railways, as is usual, indeed, in all great capitals where the railway system of transport prevails.

"The line connecting that city with Harlem is analogous in many respects to the Greenwich and Blackwall lines at London, and the Versailles and St. Germain lines at Paris. It is supported by a like description of traffic. The New-York line, however, has this peculiarity, that it is conducted through the streets of the capital upon their natural level, without either cutting, tunnel, or embankment. The carriages, on entering the town, are drawn by horses, four horses being allowed to each coach; each coach carrying from sixty to eighty persons, and being constructed like the railway coaches in general in the United States.

"The rails along the streets are laid down in a manner similar to that which is customary at places where lines of railway in England cross turnpike roads on a level. The surface of the rail is flush with the pavement, and a cavity is left for the flange to sink in.

"Other short railways, from New-York to Patterson, Morristown, and Somerville, require no particular note.

"The great line of railway already described, from Boston to New-York, is continued southward from that capital to Philadelphia. There are here two rival lines; one of which, commencing from Jersey City on the Hudson, opposite to the southern part of New-York, is carried to Bordentown, on the left bank of the Delaware, whence the traffic is carried by steamboats a few miles further to Philadelphia. The rival line commences from South Amboy in New-Jersey, to which the traffic is brought from New-York by steamers plying on the Raritan river, which separates New-Jersey from Staten Island. From Amboy the railway is continued to Camden, on the left bank of the Delaware opposite Philadelphia.

"By far the greater part of the traffic between New-York and Philadelphia is carried by the former line.

"Philadelphia is the next great centre from which railways diverge. One line is carried westward through the State of Pennsylvania, passing through Reading, and terminating at Pottsville, in the midst of the great Pennsylvanian coal-field. There it connects with a network of small railways, serving the coal and iron mines of this locality. This line of railway is a descending line towards Philadelphia, and serves the purposes of the mining districts better than a level. The loaded trains descend usually with but little effort to the moving power, while the empty wagons are drawn back.

"The passenger traffic is chiefly between Reading and Philadelphia.

"Another line of railway is carried westward through the State of Pennsylvania, passing through Lancaster, Harrisburg, the seat of the legislature, Carlisle, and Chambersburg, where it approaches the Baltimore and Ohio Railway. The length of this railway from Philadelphia to Chambersburg is 154 miles. The former, to Pottsville and Mount Carbon, is 108 miles, the section to Reading being 64.

"A great line of communication is established 400 miles in length, between Philadelphia and Pittsburg, on the left bank of the Ohio, composed partly of railway and partly of canal. The section from Philadelphia to Columbia, 82 miles, is railway. The line is then continued by canal, for 172 miles, to Holidaysburg. It is then carried by railway 37 miles to Johnstown, from whence it is continued 104 miles further to Pittsburg by canal.

"The traffic on this mixed line of transport is conducted so as to avoid the expense and inconvenience of transhipment of goods and passengers at the successive points where the railways and canals unite. The merchandise is loaded, and the passengers accommodated in the boats adapted to the canals at the dépôt in Market-street, Philadelphia. These boats, which are of considerable magnitude and length, are divided into segments, by partitions made transversely and at right angles to their length, so that each boat can be, as it were, broken into three or more pieces. These several pieces are placed each on two railway trucks adapted to the form of the bottom and keel of the boat. In this manner the boat is carried in pieces, with its load, along the railways. On arriving at the canal, the pieces are united so as to form a continuous boat, which, being launched, the transport is continued on the water.

"On arriving again at the railway, the boat is once more resolved into its segments, which, as before, are transferred to the railway trucks, and transported to the next canal station by locomotive engines.

"Between the dépôt in Market-street and the locomotive station, which is situated in the suburbs of Philadelphia, the segments of the boats are drawn by horses, on railways conducted through the streets. At the locomotive station the trucks are formed into a continuous train, and delivered over to the locomotive engine.

"As the body of the trucks rest upon a pivot, under which it is supported by the wheels, it is capable of revolving, and no difficulty is found in turning the shortest curves; and these enormous vehicles, with their contents of merchandise and passengers, are seen daily issuing from the gates of the dépôt in Market-street, and turning without difficulty the corners at the entrance of each successive street.

"The southern line of railway communication is continued from Philadelphia to Baltimore, interrupted only by a steam ferry over the Susquehanna.

"The management of these steam ferries is deserving of notice. It is generally so arranged, that the time of crossing them corresponds with a meal of the passengers. A platform is constructed, level with the line of rails, and carried to the water's edge. Upon this platform rails are laid, on which the wagons which bear the passengers' luggage, and other matters of light and rapid transport, are rolled directly upon the upper deck of the ferry-boat, the passengers meanwhile passing under a covered way to the lower deck.

"The whole operation is accomplished in five minutes. While the boat is crossing the spacious river, the passengers are supplied with their breakfast, dinner, lunch, or supper, as the case may be. On arriving at the opposite bank, the upper deck comes into contact with a like platform, bearing a railway upon which the luggage wagons are rolled. The passengers ascend by a covered way, and, resuming their places in the railway carriages, the train proceeds.

"Baltimore is the next centre of railway movement. One line issues northward to Harrisburg in Pennsylvania, where it unites with the Philadelphia and Chambersburg line. A great line of western railway is projected to be carried from Baltimore to the left bank of the Ohio, to some point near Wheeling. This line, however, is as yet finished only so far as Cumberland, 153 miles. This place is at the foot of the Alleghany range, which is crossed by the great national, an excellent Macadamized roadway, which continues the communication 126 miles further, to Wheeling, on the Ohio. The ascent is gradual, and constructed on good engineering principles.

"The railway, when completed, will cross this ascent by a series of inclined planes, all of which but one will be worked by locomotive engines. This will probably be worked by means of a stationary engine. Nothing, however, is done as yet toward the realization of this part of the project.

"Baltimore is connected with Washington, the seat of the federal legislature, by an excellent line of railway nearly forty miles in length. From this point the great southern line of communication is continued by steamboats on the Potomac to the left bank of that river near Fredericksburg, in Virginia, a distance of about fifty miles. Here the line of railway communication is resumed and continued through the State of Virginia, passing through Richmond and Petersburg, being continued southward to Halifax, on the frontiers of North Carolina.

"Another line of communication southward is formed by steamboats on the Chesapeake, which ply between Baltimore and Norfolk, from which place a line of railway is carried to the frontiers of North Carolina, near Halifax, running into the great artery just mentioned, at Weldon. From Halifax the Great Southern Railway is continued through North Carolina to Wilmington, a seaport near the southern limits of that state.

"Thus is completed so far a continuous line of railway communication running North and South through the Atlantic states, commencing at Portland in the State of Maine, passing successively through Boston, Providence, New-York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, and Richmond, and terminating at Wilmington, the total length of which is nearly 1,000 miles. From Wilmington the communication with Charleston is maintained by steamboats, which ply along the coast.

"Charleston, in South Carolina, and Savannah, in Georgia, are the points from which other great lines of railway communication issue westward. That which proceeds from Charleston is carried across South Carolina to Augusta, on the confines of Georgia, throwing off a branch northward to Columbia, the capital of the state.

"The length of the main line to Augusta is 134 miles.

"From Augusta the line of railway is continued westward through Georgia, passing through Madison and Decatur, to the left bank of the

Tennessee river, throwing off a branch to Athens, the seat of the University.

"From Savannah the line of railway passes through Georgia and Macon, and unites with the former line at Decatur.

"These lines of railway communication are continued westward to the left bank of the Alabama river, on which the transport is continued by steamboats to Mobile, and thence to New-Orleans, and by another line to the Tennessee, by which the navigation is continued through the Mississippi valley to the left bank of its great tributary, the Ohio."

We conclude this hasty paper with some statistics, showing the comparative railroad economy of the different nations of the world.

Table, showing the Population, extent of Territory, and extent of Railway in operation and in progress, in the several countries of the World where Railways have been constructed.

COUNTRIES.	Population.	Extent of territory.	Population per square mile.	Extent of railway open.	Extent of railway in progress.	Cap. invested in railways open.	Cap. to be invested in railways in progress.
		sq. miles.		miles.	miles.	£	£
United Kingdom	27,019,558.	121,050.	223.0.	5,000.	4,500.	100,000,000.	100,000,000
Germanic states, including Denmark and Holland.	45,753,640	268,548	170.0	4,542	800	56,775,000	10,000,000
United States	17,104,615.	5,642,536.	10.4.	6,565.	200.	52,000,000.	2,000,000
France	35,400,486.	281,708.	173.0.	1,722.	189.	45,812,000.	15,350,000
Belgium	4,335,319.	11,256.	382.0.	457.	200.	8,000,000.	3,600,000
Russia	54,092,300.	1,892,478.	28.6.	200.	470.	3,000,000.	7,500,000
Italy	47,696,338.	312,774.	152.0.	170.	470.	3,000,000.	8,300,000
Totals and averages.	231,312,256	4,453,350	52.0.	18,656	7,829	368,567,000	146,750,000

Comparison of the extent of Railways in operation, and the amount of Railway capital, with the Population and Territorial extent of the Countries which possess them.

COUNTRIES.	Length of Railway per million of population.	Length of railway per 1,000 sq. miles of Territory	Amount of railway capital per head of population.	Railway capital per square mile of Territory.	Share of each country in every 100 miles of railway open.	Share of each country in every £100 of capital expended.	Share of each country in every 100 miles of railway in progress.	Share of each country in every £100 of capital to be expended.
	miles.		£	£				
United Kingdom	185·00	41·3	7·400	1·652·00	26·80	54·10	57·50	68·16
Germanic states, including Denmark and Holland	99·50	16·9	1·240	212·00	24·34	15·27	10·20	6·82
United States	384·00	4·0	3·050	31.70	35·17	14.10	2·55	1·37
France	48·30	8·3	1·310	227.00	9·12	12.75	15·20	10·40
Belgium	105·20	40·5	1·850	705·00	2·45	2.16	2.55	2·45
Russia	3·70	0·10	0·055	1·59	1·07	6·81	6·00	5·13
Italy	3·57	0·54	0·063	9·60	0·91	6·81	6·00	5·67
Totals and averages	80·5	4·18	1·600	83·00	100.00	100·00	100·00	100·00

Thus in the proportion which length of railway bears to population, we have—1. United States; 2. Great Britain; 3. Belgium; 4. Germany; 5. France.

In the proportion of length of railway to territory—1st Great Britain and 5th United States. In proportion of railway capital to population, the United States stands 2d; and in relation to the capital expended upon railways, 3d. In regard to length of railways actually open, we have—1. United States; 2. Great Britain; 3. Germanic States; 4. France; 5. Belgium; 6. Russia; 7. Italy.

The following table is invaluable, for the means of comparison it affords:

Comparative view of the movement of the traffic on a portion of the Railways in operation in the United Kingdom, United States, Belgium, France and Germany.

	United Kingdom.	United States.	Belgium.	France.	German States.
Year reported	1847	1847	1847	1848	1846
	miles.	miles	miles.	miles.	miles.
Length of railway	3,036	1,160	353	1,090	2,304
Average cost of construction and stock, per mile	£ 40,000	£ 9,200*	£ 18,000	£ 26,800	£ 11,000
Per mile of railway, per day	£	£	£	£	£
Receipts	7·6	4·05	4·6	5·30	2·16
Expenses	3·0†	1·89	2·9	3·33	1·04
Profits	4·06†	2·16	1·7	1·97	1·12
Expenses per cent. of receipts	40· †	46·8	63·0	63·0	48·3
Profits per cent. of capital	4·2†	8·6	3·44	2·68	3.72
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Receipts per mile of trains	7 0	7 5	5 0	7 6	....
Receipts per passengers booked	2 0	2 3	1 6	2 1·75	1 6·5
	miles.	miles.	miles.	miles.	miles.
Distance travelled per passenger	15·75	18·2	22·6	24.9	19·6
	d.	*d.*	*d.*	*d.*	*d.*
Receipts per passenger per mile	1·54	1·47	0·8	1·03	0·93
No. of passengers per train	50	54	75·3	61·4	....
Per cent. of passengers booked					
1st class	13·8	100	11.	7·0	3·6
2d class	39·5	....	24·0	24·6	22·4
3d class	46·7	....	65·	68·4	74·0
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*		*s. d.*
Receipts per ton of goods booked	3 2·2	5 8·5	5 2	....	10·1
	miles.	miles.	miles.		miles.
Distance carried per ton	22·5	38	43·8	....	46.4
	d.	*d.*	*d.*		*d.*
Receipts per ton per mile	1·67	1·8	1·34	....	2·6
No. of tons per train	....	54·5	33·2	....	....
Average speed of passenger-train in miles per hour					
Stoppages included	24·5	15·0‡	18·10	21·2	20·0
Stoppages excluded	32·0	....	24·90	27·0	24·2

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* The average cost of the American railways, taken collectively, per mile, is only £8,129. Those to which the present Report refers include among them the most expensive in the states.

† The estimated limit. ‡ By estimation.

ART. VII.—MANUFACTURE OF SUGAR.

CRYSTALLIZATION OF SUGAR—CHEMICAL AND OTHER DOCTRINES OF SUGAR.

The work which we now begin to republish, in parts, is from the pen of a distinguished English chemist, and is lately from the press, having not appeared in our country. The author, Dr. Scoffern, elaborates a new theory and process of sugar manufacture, which will be invaluable to our planters. No work has yet appeared on the subject possessing higher merit.

Dr. Scoffern's attention was turned to colonial sugar manufacture in 1847, and he acknowledges the labors of Dr. Evans in the same field. In his own language—"I could not believe that there should exist any necessity for the loss of two-thirds of any material in producing, combined with a host of impurities, the remaining third—so opposed did the notion appear to any analogous case—so inconsistent with chemical harmony. I have since given the subject my almost undivided attention, and to prosecute it with the greatest efficiency, I have spent the greater portion of the subsequent period in a refinery," etc.—(Ed.)

Inasmuch as the phenomena of crystallization are intimately associated with the production of sugar in the mercantile form, it has been considered desirable to offer a slight outline of that branch of science.

As a preliminary to a proper appreciation of the operation of that force, on which the formation of a crystal depends, it will be necessary to acquire a well-defined idea of the atomic and molecular constitution of matter.

Let it be assumed that matter, though immediately presented to our senses under the form of masses, is in reality but an aggregate of molecules; and that the latter are in their turn composed of particles of matter, which no human agency or law of nature, as nature now exists, can divide, and which, on account of this indivisibility, are called atoms.

The above-mentioned assumption is in accordance with all chemical testimony: not one valid experiment can be brought against it; so that the only proof necessary to establish the fact of the existence of these atoms is the direct visual proof of their existence—a proof which never can be attained, inasmuch as chemical experiment, of a kind to be universally assented to, has demonstrated that these atoms must be smaller than a certain determined bulk, in the contemplation of which the human intellect is lost. Thus it can be demonstrated by *the naked eye*, that an atom of lead must be smaller than the billionth of a cubic line, how much smaller no one can tell, smaller, for aught we know, than there is space on the earth's surface for numerals to record. Yet, despite this inconceivable minuteness of atoms, the science of chemistry has been equal to the task of discovering their relative weights, and in many cases their relative bulks; has been able to demonstrate that the atom of oxygen weighs eight times as much as the atom of hydrogen, yet is only half the size; that an atom of lead weighs 104 times as much as one of hydrogen; of silver, 110; and so on for every elementary body, and the greater number of compound ones, of which the earth and its inhabitants are composed. The *actual* weight and *actual* size of these atoms, it is evident, must ever remain unknown, inasmuch as the means of measuring and weighing objects so inconceivably minute, involves an impossibility.

Much gratuitous difficulty has opposed itself to the contemplation of the atomic constitution of matter, by confounding two propositions, which are in themselves distinct—the proposition of the divisibility or non-divisibility of matter, with that of the divisibility or non-divisibility of space. To conceive space not to be infinitely divisible is irrational; but to conceive that matter filling such space is not infinitely indivisible, does violence to no reasoning process whatever. For let it be granted that the matter filling such space is so hard and so coherent that no force now existent can cause its division or dismemberment—then we have an atom according to the definition, viz.: a body which cannot be divided. Thus we learn that the term atom has no reference whatever to the smallness of a particle, but merely to the fact of its indivisibility; inasmuch, however, as practice demonstrates that the quality of indivisibility is alone confined to particles of incomprehensible smallness, this latter quality is always associated with the term atom.

Henceforth, then, the reader will assume the existence of atoms, and of aggregates of atoms, termed molecules; these molecules tending to unite again, and form masses.

It will be unnecessary for me here minutely to discuss the nature of those forces on which the formation of masses by the union of molecules depends. Suffice it to state, that these molecules are not only impressed with tendencies to combine, but to combine according to certain fixed and unvarying laws; as is best evinced by consideration of the fact, that, if the result of such combination be a solid, the latter has always a tendency to assume a definite geometrical form—to become, in fact, a crystal. Thus we may regard the crystalline condition the natural one of all solid bodies, and we may consider its absence due to the operation of some extraneous cause.

To illustrate the above proposition by immediate reference to sugar:—The smallest possible molecule of sugar is composed of $(C_{12}H_{10}O_{10}) + Aq.$ What the form of such molecules may be, we cannot tell; but experiment demonstrates to us, that, when several of them combine to form a mass, their tendency is not to effect a compound of indeterminate or irregular form, but one possessed of well-defined, geometric boundaries; constituting a form which, although subject to slight variations, is always referable to the geometric figure called an oblique rhombic prism. Hence sugar is said by chemists to belong to the oblique prismatic system.

It is highly important to observe, that, although sugar crystallizes in certain well-defined geometric shapes, all referable to the oblique prismatic system, and therefore invariable, yet the *size* of those crystals may be varied almost at the will of the operator; just as a bricklayer, with materials of the same form, may be conceived to build an oblique prism of any stated size. Nay, more, by a very easy modification of the treatment of two sugar solutions, both precisely equal in all respects, one shall be made to yield crystals, and the other a confused mass, devoid of all crystalline form, and hence called by chemists amorphous. A slight consideration of the operation of cohesive affinity between molecules will explain all that seems difficult here; and, as the subject is somewhat recondite, perhaps an analogy from ordinary matters will not be devoid of value:—Suppose, then, a legion of soldiers standing in an ample space, and ordered by sudden word of command to form a square; it is clear that the element of time is necessary to the success of their evolution. Give them time enough, and the evolution will be made—the square will be formed. Give them less time, and the evolution will be incomplete; either no vestige of the square will be recognizable, or its formation will be imperfect. The former is the exact condition of sugar solutions which have been exposed to slow evaporation; the latter the condition of such as have been exposed to a more rapid system of evaporation; and these remarks are applicable to all instances of crystallization whatever.

Thus we see, that, theoretically speaking, the process of effecting the crystallization of sugar *should* be entirely under the operator's control; and practice has rigidly demonstrated the correctness of the theory. Hence the sugar producer has certain well-known indications to follow out, provided he desire to obtain his staple in the form of crystals. He should evaporate by the slowest temperature consistent with economy of time and fuel, and thus retain his concentrated syrup in a fluid state, by the application of heat, until the crystals shall have accreted to the size desired.

In actual practice the sugar manufacturer is obliged to rely alone on the latter expedient, the process of slow evaporation being incompatible with the necessities of general commerce. The process would occupy too much time, and the result would necessarily be increased in price, without offering any adequate advantage. It would be, in fact, *sugar candy*, a material which is made by the process of slow evaporation here indicated, and which only differs from lump sugar in possessing larger crystals.

The principal bodies which come under the definition of sugars are—Sugar of the Cane, of the Grape, of Milk, and of Manna. They have respectively the following compositions:—

	Carbon.	Hydrogen.	Oxygen.		Water.
Cane Sugar,................	12	10	10	+	1
Grape-Sugar, or Glucose,....	12	12	12	+	2
Mannite,..................	15	16	16		
Of Milk,...................	12	12	12		

Of these the latter may be entirely dismissed from our consideration, and few remarks will suffice for all but the first.

ON SUGARS.—GENERAL REMARKS.

Cane-sugar is the only one which involves commercial interests on the large scale; being alone that which is employed in any considerable amount as a sweetening agent. For although manufactories of grape-sugar do exist on the continent, with the object of producing the material for admixture with such wines as are naturally deficient in it, and thus furnishing the means of supplying alcoholic strength, yet the commercial interests involved are, comparatively speaking, small; and the clandestine manufacture of grape-sugar for the purpose of adulterating the West India staple, a manufacture which *was* extensively carried on in and near London, is without the precincts of any commercial speculation, in its true sense.

The sugar called Mannite is a mere chemical curiosity, and need not be farther adverted to in these pages, were it not for the circumstance that a portion of the juice of the cane is liable, under improper treatment, to be converted into this substance.

Sugar of milk is obtained, by a process unnecessary here to describe, from the whey of milk. Hence, in certain cheese-making localities, considerable portions of this substance are prepared. In some parts of Switzerland this is done, and the resulting sugar of milk is employed as a sweetening agent.

ON SUGARS—SPECIAL REMARKS.

Cane Sugar.—Under the definition sugar, the *distinctive* chemical characteristics of the substance have been so fully given, that nothing further in that respect need be stated here.

Henceforth I purpose devoting the term *Sugar* exclusively to sugar of the cane, appropriating the terms *Mannite* and *Glucose* to the sugar of manna and the sugar of grapes respectively.

Perhaps sugar, more than any other substance, has been mystified by a variety of appellatives. According to some it has been termed a salt: by others an essential salt; whilst the conventional mode of using the terms saccharine matter and crystalline matter, as applied to sugar, terms now legalized by act of Parliament, imply that sugars may possess the former matter without the latter, the two being distinctively indicated as capable of existing separately, and as constituting, when united, the substance *Sugar.*

It seems unnecessary to point out how totally irreconcilable is the commercial and legislative definition of sugar, when compared with the chemical one.

Perhaps, however, the following parallel statement will place the discrepancy adverted to before the reader in its most powerful light:

CHEMICAL DOCTRINE OF SUGAR.	COMMERCIAL AND LEGISLATIVE DOCTRINE OF SUGAR.
Sugar is a compound of Carbon, Hydrogen, and Oxygen, united in known, exact, and unvarying proportions.	Sugar is composed of { Saccharine matter. Crystalline matter.
Its taste is sweet; and inasmuch as taste depends on rapidity of solution in the mouth, and inasmuch as large crystals dissolve less rapidly than small ones, sugar imparts less sweetness for equal time in proportion as its crystals are large.	Sugar is not invariably alike, but different according to region, climate, or plant; may have more or less saccharine, more or less crystalline matter. Its smell, too, may vary; so may its taste, and also its color. Sugars may be weak or strong; beet-root sugar, for instance, is a weak sugar.
Size of a crystal is not defined by nature, but shape is defined. Sugars may be obtained in crystals of any size, may be even made to measure.	Weak sugars possess small grains (i. e., small crystals). Some weak sugars have large grains (i. e., crystals): these are weak, because they do not sweeten well.

The reader will form his own conclusions as to the comparative rationality of the two varying statements concerning sugar. According to the chemical doctrine, all is lucid and precise; according to the other, sugar is a kind of organic anomaly.

If sugar be a compound of saccharine and crystalline matter, surely an inquirer would infer that either of these matters had been separately obtained, and would, with great justice, expect the sugar community to be able to state the composition, properties, and general nature of sugar, *after having been deprived of its saccharine matter.*

In selecting the purest specimen of a crystallizable body, chemists invariably seek for the largest and best developed crystal, experience having proved that nature avoids admixture of impurities with the substance of a crystal, but extrudes them to the outside, where they form a mere mechanical coating. In conformity with this rule of proceeding, pure specimens of white sugar-candy have been the staple material of analytical researches, prosecuted with the result of demonstrating that the composition of sugar is $(C_{12}\,H_{10}\,O_{10}) + Aq.$; and here we must interpose a chemical theory relative to this composition and the reasoning on which it is based. It will be observed, that the eleven parts (atoms or equivalents) of hydrogen, and the eleven of oxygen, would, if combined, constitute eleven atoms or equivalents of water; hence the following question arises:—Does this amount of hydrogen and oxygen, or any part of the same, exist in sugar *as* water or not? On this point chemists are agreed to consider that one part (equivalent or atom) of hydrogen, and one of oxygen, really do exist in the sugar-candy as water, without which water, or some equivalent for it, the remaining elements $C_{12}\,H_{10}\,O_{10}$ could not exist in combination.

The rationale of this opinion is as follows:—If sugar be brought in contact under favorable circumstances with certain bases—oxide of lead, for instance—an equivalent of water is evolved, and the remaining elements of the sugar $(C_{12}\,H_{10}\,O_{10})$ combine with the oxide of lead. In this way the sugar, less one atom of water, may be shifted from one base to another, and its existence inferred. These bases, however, being separated, the $C_{12}\,H_{10}\,O_{10}$ immediately resolves itself into other forms of combination; that is to say, provided it have not the means of recombining with the necessary amount of water to form crystalline sugar. Thus water serves as a base, and hence is termed by chemists *basic water.*

Instead, therefore, of stating crystallized sugar to be composed of twelve atoms of carbon, eleven of hydrogen, and eleven of oxygen, or in chemical algebra, $C_{12}\,H_{11}\,O_{11}$, it is more usual for chemists to represent it as composed of twelve of carbon, ten of oxygen, ten of hydrogen, *plus one atom of basic water*: or, in chemical algebra, thus: $C_{12}\,H_{10}\,O_{10} + Aq.$ These observations explain the meaning of the term *hypothetical*, in contradistinction to *practical* sugar. The former indicates crystallized sugar *minus one atom of water*, or $(C_{12}\,H_{11}\,O_{11}) - H\,O = C_{12}H_{10}O_{10}$, the compound which unites with bases. The latter, this compound plus one atom of water.

The non-chemical reader will save himself much trouble and error by remembering this explanation. Otherwise he might hereafter confound the *one atom* of combined water, with some indefinite quantity of that fluid, in an uncombined state, as constituting moisture.

Sugar has a sweet taste, but no smell. Its color is white. When crystallized, it is semi-transparent. It is brittle, and may be easily reduced to powder. Exposed to the atmosphere, it attracts a little water, but incurs no chemical change. Sugar is very soluble in water, which, at a temperature of 48°, dissolves its own weight of that substance.

With increase of temperature, the solvent power of water for sugar increases also; when nearly at the boiling point, it is capable of dissolving any quantity of sugar whatever.

On evaporating the water from a solution of sugar, the latter is obtained in the form of crystals, the primitive form of which is a four-sided prism, whose base is a rhomb. The crystals are usually four or six-sided prisms, terminated by two-sided and sometimes by three-sided summits.

Sugar, like all other organic bodies, is very delicately constituted, and the laws or forces which hold its elements in combination are overcome by the operation of numerous disturbing causes. The action of heat; that of the alkalies—i. e. of all *proper* alkalies, (the action of alkaloids on sugar has not been investigated;) of a considerable number of non-alkaline bases; and of most acids,—tend to the destruction of sugar, by causing its ultimate elements to fall into a number of new combinations, the major part of which are still but imperfectly known.

The following experiment of M. Soubeiran affords a remarkable illustration of the effects produced on sugar solutions by the agency of heat alone. This chemist, having dissolved a given quantity of sugar in a given quantity of water, applied heat to the solution for thirty-six hours. The apparatus was so constructed, that the water given off by evaporation was continually returned to the original solution; by which contrivance the latter was always composed of the same quantity of sugar or its derivatives, and the same quantity of water as when the experiment commenced. Gradually the solution acquired darkness of color, and, at the end of thirty-six hours, it had become black.

Hence this experiment teaches us that, even by the application of heat alone to sugar solutions, sugar is destroyed and treacle is formed.

Chemists have demonstrated that there scarcely exists a foreign body which, if admixed with sugar solutions, and the latter boiled, does not increase the rapidity of destruction. The alkalies, lithia, potash, soda, and ammonia, act with such energy, that a very inconsiderable portion of either, added to a boiling sugar solution, produces an immediate and visible destruction of a large amount of the latter substance. This destructive agency is also participated in by the alkaline earths, baryta, strontia, and lime. The latter agent is almost universally employed in the manufacture of sugar from cane-juice, and hence arises great destruction of material.

Acids, as a class, are equally injurious with alkalies to the constitution of sugar. Sulphuric, and hydrochloric acids, convert it rapidly into other compounds, several of which are as yet imperfectly investigated. It would appear, however, that the changes effected by these agents are,—first the conversion of sugar into glucose, then the change of the latter into a series of dark-colored bodies, many of them of an acid nature; amongst which are bodies termed glucic, melasinic, sacchumic, and sacchulmic acids, also sacchulmine, and sacchumine.

The action of nitric acid on sugar is peculiar; converting it into oxalic acid. There are certain acids, however, which, under no circumstances that I have been able to recognize, are injurious to the constitution of sugar. Of these, the carbonic and sulphurous acids may be cited. The latter has long been known as a powerful antiferment; and, taking advantage of this property, I was enabled to obtain a specimen of cane-juice from the island of Barbadoes, in a state of such complete conservation, that I extracted from it upwards of 20 per cent. of sugar.

Grape Sugar.—Synonyms, *sugar of fruit—uncrystallizable sugar* (improperly so called)—*glucose.*

The last synonym, i. e. glucose, is that by which grape-sugar will in future be designated throughout these pages.

Glucose, so called from γλυκύς, sweet, is that form of sugar, to the presence of which ripe grapes, plums, peaches—and, indeed, the greater number of fruits—owe their sweetness. Glucose, moreover, is the sweet principle of honey, and of malt; hence, it is to its presence that brewers'-wort owes its luscious taste, from which liquid it may be procured. The readiest method of obtaining this variety of sugar, in large quantities, is by boiling starch or lignine with water containing a minute portion of sulphuric acid. The best proportions for effecting this are—starch one part, water four parts, and of sulphuric acid $\frac{1}{100}$th of the weight of the starch. The ebullition should be continued for thirty-six hours, the water being returned as fast as it evaporates. At the expiration of this time the conversion of the starch into sugar will be complete; lime now is to be added, which separates all the sulphuric acid in the form of sulphate of lime, and the remaining sugar may be obtained by evaporation.

In this operation none of the sulphuric acid used is appropriated by the starch, or enters into any form of combination, its effect being of the kind known to chemists as *catalytic*, or attributable to contact without combination.

This method of forming glucose artificially was accidentally discovered by the Russian chemist Kirchoff, during an attempt to convert sugar into gum. He set out with the idea of dissolving the starch merely in dilute sulphuric acid, but, on continuing the boiling, he noticed the production of sugar.

If, instead of starch, cane sugar be used, a similar result is obtained. Cane sugar is also partially changed into glucose by heat alone; and still more rapidly by the united agency of heat and alkalies or alkaline earths.

Vogel demonstrated that no gas was eliminated during this transmutation; and Mr. Moore and De Saussure proved that the quantity of sulphuric used was not diminished in the process. Saussure, moreover, ascertained that 100 parts of starch, when converted into sugar, became 110·14 parts. Hence he inferred, that glucose was merely a solid compound of starch and water, or, more correctly speaking, of the *elements* of starch and the *elements* of water.

Glucose was, a few years since, largely prepared in the neighborhood of London for the purpose of adulterating colonial sugar, the amylaceous material used in the process being potato farina, of which the chief part was imported from Ireland. It might have been still more economically made, by substituting certain kinds of saw-dust for starch.

Glucose, when quite pure, is nearly white, and crystallizes in little needles, radiating from a centre, offering, in the aggregate, the appearance of little tubercular masses.

Unlike cane sugar, glucose is soft and clammy to feel; it may also be distinguished from the former by certain chemical tests.*

Mannite.—Various species of the ash yield, when incisions are made into their bark, an exudation of glutinous feel and sweet taste. When its fluid portion has been evaporated by the sun, it finds its way into commerce under the name of manna.

The bulk of manna consists of a peculiar sugar, which chemists term mannite; and to obtain which from manna, the latter is digested with hot alcohol, which dissolves the mannite. On evaporating away the alcohol, mannite crystallizes in slender acicular tufts.

The consideration of mannite would not belong to this treatise, were it not for the circumstance of its occasional artificial production from solutions containing sugar of the cane. Thus Fourcroy and Vauquelin demonstrated the existence of mannite in the fermented juice of onions and melons—vegetables which naturally contain sugar of the cane—and, under certain conditions hereafter to be detailed, a portion of sugar in juice of the cane is converted into the same substance. Lactic acid is also a result of the fermentation of sugar under certain circumstances; which seem to be these—the presence of nitrogenous bodies, and the due fermentive temperature. Liebig imagines that the formation of both mannite and lactic acid may be due to the deoxidizing effect of these nitrogenous matters. An examination of the formulæ of the bodies involved in the supposition bespeaks the probability of this view; as also do the circumstances under which saccharine liquids undergo the change; namely, whilst they are still *raw*, or unpurified from the foreign matters which are derived from their native sources. Thus the juices of the beet and the cane rapidly undergo the change adverted to, but solutions of sugar and water probably never. With the juice of the white beet—(betula alba,)—the rapidity of the transformation has often been to me a matter of surprise.*

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* The notes which Dr. Scoffern appended to the two first chapters of his work are omitted for want of space, but will appear next month.

PROGRESS OF OUR GREAT CITIES.

1. NEW-ORLEANS.

In the last issue of the Review we published a table from the New-Orleans Prices Current, showing the gross receipts of produce at that city, for the year ending the 31st August, 1850, which amounted in value to $96,897,873, the largest aggregate ever shown in its commerce. The receipts were, for

1849	$81,989,692	1846	$77,193,464
1848	79,779,151	1845	57,199,122
1847	90,033,256		

As the reader will find, in our previous volumes, full statistics of the city's trade, extending back for a great many years, we will not do further now than continue them for the present year.

EXPORTS, 1849–50—DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN.

		Domestic Produce.			Foreign Produce.
Third Quarter,	1849	$5,794,072	Third Quarter,	1849	$42,759
Fourth "	"	15,751,127	Fourth "	"	49,461
First "	1850	30,041,819	First "	1850	164,725
Second "	"	19,551,631	Second "	"	150,128
Total, year end'g June 30,		$71,049,556	Total,		$407,073
" previous year,		65,292,571			

TONNAGE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

		Tons entered.			Tons cleared.
Third Quarter,	1849	71,280,65	Third Quarter,	1849	95,626,84
Fourth "	"	259,651,87	Fourth "	"	184,490,79
First "	1850	267,820,32	First "	1850	290,756,05
Second "	"	164,881,64	Second "	"	203,106,41
Total to June 30,		763,634,58	Total to June 30		773,780,09
Previous year		893,920,24	Previous year		964,165,69

Of the exports of home produce, $33,151,279 were to American ports, or coastwise, and $37,898,277 to foreign ports. The total foreign exports in 1848–9, were, domestic, $36,957,118, foreign products, $654,549. Imports, 1848–9, $10,050,697.

We extract the remarks of Mr. Littlefield in relation to the leading staples, &c., of the city, for the past year, and will, in our next, continue his statistics.

COMPETITION FOR THE VALLEY TRADE.

Having incidentally alluded to Northern enterprise and improvements, we take the liberty to remark, that they constitute a subject of much interest with us, in so far that they are intimations that some degree of emulation should speedily manifest itself in the improvement of our advantages of position, if we would not see our trade yearly escaping from us by new avenues, and our "Great Emporium of the South" sink into a fourth or fifth rate city. Already, as we have above remarked, are the canals and railroads of the North diverting from us large quantities of the rich products of the West, and Carolina and Georgia, and even Alabama, are rapidly pushing forward their lines of railroad, to intersect and draw off from us the cotton and other products of the Tennessee valley. With these examples before us, all tending more or less, in their practical results, to the disadvantage of our own trade, will this community much longer be content to rest supinely upon mere natural advantages, and omit all effort to improve those advantages by such artificial aids as readily suggest themselves to the intelligent observer? We trust not. We hope soon to see the public and our men of capital, aroused to action, and such enterprises as the Tehuantepec route to the Pacific; a railroad across the Florida Isthmus; one to Jackson, Miss., and thence northward to the Tennessee valley and the Ohio river; all these, and others of lesser magnitude, we hope soon to see in progress, and pressing rapidly to completion. When these works shall be consummated, manufactories established, and steamship lines multiplied, our city cannot fail to give renewed evidence of a magnificent destiny.

DEFECTS OF THE MAIL SERVICE.

As year has succeeded year we have hoped, in reference to the mail service, to be warranted in exchanging the language of complaint to words of commendation; but the experience of the past few months would seem to argue retrogression instead of progress in this important branch of the public service, and we again find ourselves called upon, by a duty which we owe to our own interest and to the public, to denounce the great Atlantic route, as now conducted, (except that portion between this city and Mobile,) as utterly inefficient, and a positive disgrace to this great commercial nation. Here is the most important route in the Union; the route that undertakes the punctual conveyance of the great bulk of the commercial correspondence of the country, both domestic and foreign; the route on which speed and punctuality are of the last importance; and yet it is specially here, where it particularly should not be, that there are probably more failures during the year than on any other route of the least prominence throughout the United States. In most other departments of human industry and human knowledge, each successive year brings some evidence of progress in the direction of improvement, but it would seem that either the business of conveying the mails is not susceptible of amendment, or that the proper means are not employed to develope its capabilities. For ourselves, we have no hesitation in declaring our conviction that the whole difficulty rests in the latter postulate. What, then, is the remedy? Complaints through the public press have been incessant, but, judging from the results, they would seem to be of less efficacy than the "idle wind." The Chamber of Commerce, we think, should take up the matter, and make the proper representations to the Department at Washington. Our delegates in Congress also should be requested to give the subject their attention, and press its importance in the proper quarters. The aid of the government should be extended, in the shape of loans, subscriptions of stock, or grants of land, towards the completion of a continuous line of railroad between Mobile and the Northern cities, and most particularly should contractors be held to a strict accountability for all failures. The leniency which delinquent contractors have been dealt with heretofore, we conceive to be a principal cause of the absence of all improvement in this branch of the public service.

TEHUANTEPEC RAILROAD AND NEW-ORLEANS.

The acquisition of California, and the discoveries of the gold regions, have already led to extraordinary results, which entitle them to prominence among the remarkable events in the world's history. Scarcely more than two years have elapsed since the announcement of the first discovery of the precious metal, and already California is said to number a population exceeding one hundred and twenty thousand persons, to which there are constant accessions from various portions of our own country, and from other parts of the world. From the 1st March, 1849, to the present date, the departure of vessels from Atlantic ports, via Cape Horn, including sail vessels and steamers, have reached the extraordinary number of 1300, of which about 850 had arrived, at the last advices; and, besides these, numerous arrivals of foreign vessels are noticed, from southern ports on the Pacific, from the Sandwich Islands, and from Australia, &c. And thus it is, that through the all-powerful attraction of gold, there is rapidly gathering, at what but a few months since was an obscure and almost uninhabited point of our lately acquired territory, the nucleus of a population that shall baffle all previous calculations of progress, and the elements of a commerce whose ultimate extent and value have probably never been reached in the past history of the world. In the progress of this commerce, and in the development of its artificial aids, our own city has an intimate and deep interest, as there can be no doubt that, with the proper improvements, the route across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec would be the great avenue of trade between the Atlantic and the Pacific; between European countries and the far-off shores of Asia. The grant for this route, with all its rights and privileges, is understood to be at the command of New-Orleans capitalists; and if its advantages, in connection with the position of our city, should be allowed to remain unimproved, it would seem to argue a culpable supineness, and would give point to the popular sarcasms on New-Orleans enterprise.

OPERATIONS IN COTTON, 1849–50.

The following table will exhibit the course of the market more particularly, the quotations given being for Low Middling to Good Middling Louisiana and Mississippi, with the rates of freight to Liverpool, and of sterling bills, at the same dates.

		Low Middling to Good Middling. Cents per lb.	Sterling. Per cent. prem.	Freights to Liverpool. Per. lb.
September	15	9⅞ a 10	9½ a 10¼	7-16d
October,	3	9⅝ a 10½	9 a 10¼	13-32 a 7-16d
November,	3	10 a 10⅞	9 a 10	⅜d
December,	1	10⅛ a 10⅞	7½ a 8½	⅜d
January,	2	10¼ a 10¾	7 a 7½	13-32 a 7-16d
February,	2	11⅛ a 11⅞	7¼ a 8¼	5-16 a ⅜d
March,	2	10⅞ a 11⅝	7¼ a 8	5-16 a ⅜d
April,	3	11 a 11½	7¾ a 8¼	¼ a 5-16d
May	1	11⅝ a 12¼	9¼ a 10¼	⅛ a 3-16d
June,	1	11½ a 12⅜	9 a 10	5-32 a 3-16d
July,	6	11¾ a 12½	9 a 9¾	3-16 a ¼d
August,	3	12¼ a 12⅞	9½ a 10¼	11-32d

PROSPECTS OF COMING CROP.

We have also prepared, with much labor, the annexed table, which shows the product of Low Middling to Good Middling Louisiana and Mississippi cottons, taking the average of each entire year, for five years, with the receipts at New-Orleans, and the total crop of the United States.

	Total Crop. Bales.	Receipts at N. Orleans. Bales.	Average Price. Cts. per lb.
1845–6	2,100,537	1,041,393	6⅞
1846–7	1,778,651	707,324	10
1847–8	2,347,634	1,188,733	6¾
1848–9	2,728,596	1,100,636	6¼
1849–50 (estimated)	2,100,000	797,387	11

The total receipts at this port since the 1st September last, *from all sources*, are 887,723 bales. This amount includes 40,336 bales received from Mobile and Florida, and from Texas, *by sea*; and this being deducted, our *receipts proper* are shown to be 797,387 bales, in which are included 17,501 bales received direct from Montgomery, &c., Alabama, and which being counted here, and here only, are deemed to properly belong to the New-Orleans receipts. This, then, would show a decrease in our *receipts proper* as compared with last year upon the same basis, of 303,249 bales, and of 390,346 bales, compared with 1847–8. The total exports since September 1st are 838,591 bales, of which 397,189 bales were shipped to Great Britain, 117,413 to France, 110,146 to the North and South of Europe, Mexico, &c., and 213,843 to United States ports. On a comparison of the exports with those of last year, there would appear to be a decrease of 247,829 bales to Great Britain, 37,234 to France, and 51,681 to the North and South of Europe, Mexico, &c., while to the United States ports there is an increase of 8032 bales. The total receipts *at all the Atlantic and Gulf ports*, up to the latest dates received, as shown by our general Cotton Table, are

2,071,477 bales, and *the crop*, when made up by the New-York Shipping List, will probably vary but slightly from 2,100,000 bales.

On reference to the above figures it will be seen that nearly the whole of the deficiency in the receipts at this port has fallen on Great Britain, i. e., the decrease in our exports to Great Britain nearly corresponds to the deficiency in receipts. The whole deficiency, however, in the exports from the United States to Great Britain, since September 1st, 1849, is upwards of 450,000 bales, and the decrease to all foreign ports, as compared with last year, is nearly 653,000 bales. This very large falling off in the supply could not fail to have an influence upon prices, though the Liverpool market did not respond to ours as promptly as many had expected, the representations respecting the extent of the crop being very contradictory, and the receipts for some months keeping well up with those of the previous year; a circumstance which, however, was fully and frequently explained by directing attention to the prevalence of comparatively high prices, and to the fact that all the avenues to market were in an unusually favorable condition. As the season advanced, however, the deficiency began to exhibit itself in a rapid ratio, and the Liverpool market soon gave evidence of the influence which this was calculated to exercise. The advance, however, though large in the aggregate, has been remarkably gradual, as holders generally, judging from the course of the trade, appear to have pursued the policy of supplying the market pretty freely. The quotations at Liverpool for fair Orleans cotton, on the 1st Sept. last, was 5½d, and on the 1st August it was 8½d, equal to an advance of *six cents* per pound. It is gratifying and encouraging to observe, that notwithstanding this great enhancement of prices, the ratio of consumption has been less affected than could well have been anticipated, as will be seen by the following table, which exhibits the import, delivery, stock, &c., in the whole of Great Britain, for the six months ended on the 30th June last, and a comparison with the same period in 1849.

		1850. Bales.		1849. Bales.
Stock 1st January		558,390		496,050
Import six months		941,862		1,324,965
		1,499,252		1,821,005
Export six months	119,800		114,500	
Consumption	770,952	890,752	851,205	965,705
Stock 30th June	608,500			855,300
Weekly average taken for consumption	29,652			32,738

It will thus be seen that the quantity taken for consumption in Great Britain, during the first six months of the current year, is only about 80,000 bales short of the amount taken for the same purpose in the corresponding period last year, or equal to about 3,000 bales per week. It will also be noticed that there has been some increase in the quantity taken for export, and the speculative operations have been more extensive than for several years past, reaching at Liverpool alone, from January 1st to August 1st, 538,320 bales. At the latest date (August 10th) the whole quantity at Liverpool, out of the hands of spinners, was only 468,230 bales, of which 322,000 bales were American, and it would thus seem that the manufacturers have lost (probably never to be regained) the controlling power of a superabundant stock. The deliveries for consumption at Havre, during the first six months of the current year, slightly exceed those for the same period last year, and the consumption of the United States, including Northern, Western and Southern manufactories, cannot vary much from last year, when it was estimated at about 650,000 bales.

PROSPECTS OF COMING CROP.

In approaching the question of supply, which we propose briefly to refer to, we are fully aware that it has become a subject of absorbing interest, and one which at this period can only be treated of in general terms, by a party wholly disinterested, and without prejudice. Our remarks will be confined to the

American crop, which is the point of paramount importance, and indeed the only one which at present possesses any considerable degree of interest. Referring back to the first portion of the season—the period for planting, obtaining a *stand*, &c., there can be no doubt that it was one of the most unpropitious that has been known for many years. The operations of preparing the ground and planting were generally retarded to an unusually late period, by a remarkably wet and cold spring; and after the seed had been put in the ground the weather continued so unseasonably cold that it could not germinate, and most planters were obliged to plant their fields more than once—some of them several times. Besides, the numerous plantations, some of them very extensive, were overflowed, and continued so until after the usual season of even a late planting; so that it may safely be said, that up to about the middle of June the prospects of the crop were less flattering than for several previous years. About the period above noted, a favorable change took place in the weather, and from that time to the present, with an occasional excess of rain in one section and of drought in another, the general character of the season has been favorable to a remarkable degree. This propitious change has of course had a favorable influence upon the cotton crop, and its progress towards maturity is generally represented as having been very rapid. The plant is still unusually backward, however; considerably more so than even the late crop of last year; and this, we conceive, is an important point to be kept in view, as no full crop can be made without early maturity and a favorable picking season. What the extent of the crop is likely to be is an intensely interesting question, but its solution hangs on so many contingencies that no speculative estimates can be indulged in at this period—at least by us. The extent of the last crop is known, and the parties immediately interested, in their calculations on the probable product of the present year, will doubtless keep in view the comparative prospects up to this period, and also the important fact that the crop of 1849, short as it was, had the advantage of one of the most favorable picking seasons ever known.

Whatever may be the extent of the crop, however, the market prospects must be considered as highly flattering. We have shown that the large advance in prices has thus far but slightly affected the ratio of consumption, and with unusually low stocks in Europe, a healthy trade, the world at peace, and food crops in abundance, we see little probability of the supply being so large as to depress prices below the average of last year, and the chances would seem to be that even a somewhat higher average will be realized.

The first bale of *new crop* (some 250 lbs.) was received here on the 11th of August, being only four days later than the first receipt last year. We suppose it, however, to be tolerably well understood by this time, that these ambitious *first bales* are no reliable index of the general forwardness of the crop, and up to this date we have received only 67 bales against 477 bales to same date last year, and 6846 bales in 1845, the latter being the largest quantity of new crop ever received up to 1st September. Of the few bales received, only about 35 have been sold at a range of 13¼ to 15 cents per lb., the latter a fancy price for a single bale.

SUGAR.

In our sugar annual report, having no strictly accurate data for our good guidance, we were compelled to avail ourselves of popular estimate for the extent of the crop, which placed it at 220,000 hogsheads, though it probably exceeded this amount. At the same time, in remarking upon the prospect of the then growing crop, viz.—that which has just been disposed of—we stated that there was a strong probability of its being at least fully equal in amount to the estimate of the one preceding it. In this we have been sustained by the results, which have been arrived at with much labor and expense by Mr. P. A. Champomier, and doubtless with as much accuracy as such a difficult matter is susceptible of. According to Mr. C.'s statement, which is published in a pamphlet form, the total crop, including 217,923 hogsheads *cistern bottoms*, sums up 217,923 hogsheads; estimated to be equal to 269,769,000 lbs. This would show the largest crop ever produced in the State, and it would probably have been somewhat larger, and of better average quality, had the cutting and grinding been more generally delayed, as there was no killing frost, and those crops gathered latest gave the best product. Besides this, the loss by overflows and crevasses is estimated at about 18,000 hhds. The estimated stock on hand at the close of last year was 5000 hogsheads, and this quantity being added to the crop, as above stated, makes a supply, in round numbers, of 253,000 hhds. This, as nearly as can be ascertained, has been disposed of as follows: shipments out of the State, by sea, including those from Attakapas, 96,000 hogsheads; consumption of the city and neighborhood, 15,000 hogsheads; taken for refining in the city and State, including cistern bottoms, 15,000; stock now on hand in the State, estimated, 2000 hogsheads; leaving as the quantity taken for the West, 125,000 hogsheads. The shipments to the Atlantic ports have been just about the same as last year, or equal to about 90,000 hogsheads.

The first receipt of the new crop was on the 11th October, when 14 hogsheads came to hand from Point Coupee. It proved to be of good color and grain, and altogether of an unusually good quality for the first parcel of the season. One hogshead was promptly sold on arrival, at 6¼c. per lb., and an offer of 5¾c. was refused for the remainder. The first arrival of the previous year was on the 5th October, but being made from unripe cane, the quality was unmerchantable, and it was not until the 16th October that any sales were noticed, the prices being 4 to 4¾c. per lb. The first receipt of 14 hogsheads, above noticed, was immediately followed by other parcels, and the market gradually gave way, reaching 4 to 4¼c. for fair at the close of October. From this time to the middle of December the receipts at the levee were ample, considerably exceeding those of the previous year, but a very fair demand, both for the North and the West, kept prices quite steady, the range for that period being between 3¾ and 4⅜c. for fair. In January, under an accumulation of stock, the rates for fair were depressed to 3½ to 3⅝c., but this was for a few days only, and up to the 1st May, prevailing rates for fair were 3¾ to 4c. About the 1st of May, the accounts from the North being favorable, and freight being depressed to a mere nominal rate, while at the same time the stock was much reduced, and mostly in second hands, buyers for the Atlantic markets came forward, and their operations had an immediate influence on prices, which commenced an upward movement, and which have since continued gradually to advance (with the exception of a slight reaction in June) up to the present time, the closing of quotations being as follows—Ordinary to common, 4½ to 5¼; fair to fully fair, 5¾ to 6c.; prime to choice, 6¼ to 6¾c. per lb. The sales on plantation have ranged from 3½ to 5⅞c. per lb, though only one very choice crop, sold in the latter part of May, commanded the highest figures. The principal sales were at 3¾ to 4c. for fair to prime crops. The quantity received at the levee for sale has been 143,912 hogsheads, against 125,592 hogsheads last year, and the stock now on hand in the State is estimated to be about 2000 hogsheads.

In respect to the growing crop, to which, in past years, we have been accustomed to make some brief reference, we have to remark, that, in common with all other crops, its early progress was retarded by an unusually unpropitious spring, and in the first part of the season, it gave to the planter no very flattering promise. For some three months past, however, the weather has been of a remarkably favorable character for promoting the growth of the cane, and the prospects now are that, with as favorable a fall as was experienced last year, and no intermediate disaster, the crop of the present season is likely to equal, if it does not exceed, that which has immediately preceded it. It is true there have been losses to a considerable extent from overflows and crevasses, but these are likely to be compensated in a material degree by extended cultivation and the better promise of the crop generally. The following table exhibits the annual product of the State for a series of years, and a reference to it will show that the cane culture is subject to remarkable fluctuations, according to the character of the season.

Crop of 1849,	247,923	hhds.	Crop of 1839,	115,000	hhds.
" 1848,	220,000	"	" 1838,	70,000	"
" 1847,	240,000	"	" 1837,	65,000	"
" 1846,	140,000	"	" 1836,	70,000	"
" 1845,	186,650	"	" 1835,	30,000	"
" 1844,	200,000	"	" 1834,	100,000	"
" 1843,	100,000	"	" 1833,	75,000	"
" 1842,	140,000	"	" 1832,	70,000	"
" 1841,	90,000	"	" 1829,	48,000	"
" 1840,	87,000	"	" 1828,	88,000	"

From the interesting and valuable work of Mr. Champomier, we learn that the crop of last year was the product of 1455 sugar houses, and Mr. C. estimates that there will be 1517 sugar houses in operation upon the present crop, of which about 865 are by steam power, 650 by horse power, and 2 by water power. There are also some few plantations in the parish of Concordia, in this state, and in Wilkinson County, Mississippi, which are not included in this estimate.

2.—NASHVILLE.—TENNESSEE.

The "City of Rocks," as this city is denominated, has suffered during the last six months, more than any other city in the south or west. Two heavy freshets in the Cumberland river, in March and April, overflowed the lower parts of the town, driving the inmates (who were generally of the poorer class) from their habitations, to seek shelter in the more elevated portions. Nashville has seen her best days, unless her capitalists will arouse from their lethargy, and invest their surplus funds in something save shaving notes. Nashville has grown to her present eminence by her profits on trade, which trade she is losing every day. It is but a few years since this was the market for the produce of Middle and East Tennessee, Southern Kentucky, and North Alabama. The railroad from Chattanooga to Charleston, South-Carolina, has taken off the Alabama and East Tennessee trade. The improvement of the Green river has monopolized that of Southern Kentucky, while the railroad now in course of erection from Nashville to Chattanooga, will be certain to deprive her of what little she has left from Middle Tennessee. To insure this, Memphis is determined to have her share, and is making rapid progress in establishing a road that will tap the main road to Charleston, and thereby draw a large portion of the trade to the "City on the Bluff." Now, if the capitalists of Nashville, her property-holders, do not "take time by the forelock," real estate in five years will go down to a very low estimate. You may ask me how they can prevent it. I answer, by going immediately into the manufacture of cotton and iron, for which few places in the southwest has greater facilities. Coal and iron can be had almost at the door, and of the very best quality. Cotton can be had in any quantity, but the apathy displayed by those who could save this place, will be the means of destroying it. Now, I am no prophet, nor the son of a prophet, but if something is not done, and that soon, before ten years you will see grass growing in what have been, and may still be kept, the busy streets of Nashville; and in less than a century it will be spoken of as a "place that once had a flourishing trade, with a population of over twenty thousand inhabitants, but now scarcely known." Would that some stimulus could be invented that would open the eyes of those interested to the true position of this city!

The corporation, with the assistance of the property-holders, are making efforts to fill up the low grounds above high-water mark. When this is done, I have no doubt we can show as clean a bill of health as any city in this region.

3.—PHILADELPHIA.

The gross revenue from duties on imports into the United States, for the year ending June 30th, 1850, was $39,700,000. This is equal to an importation of nearly two hundred millions of dollars. Gross revenue for the year ending June 30th, 1849, $31,202,047; year ending June 30th, 1848, $33,228,111.

The value of merchandise imported into and exported from Philadelphia, during each of the four past years, ending June 30th, was as follows:

VALUE OF IMPORTS.

	Dutiable.	Free.	Specie.	Total.
1847	8,551,729	875,786	158,601	9,586,126
1848	11,020,925	791,320	327,854	12,147,099
1849	9,519,151	855,084	270,568	10,644,803
1850	10,413,276	1,161,189	41,336	11,615,801
Total	$39,505,081	$3,683,379	$798,359	$43,993,829

VALUE OF EXPORTS.

	Domestic.	Foreign.	Specie.	Total.
1847	8,363,311	239,453	41,627	8,543,391
1848	5,468,009	251,653	52,671	5,732,333
1849	4,807,359	350,467	186,585	5,344,421
1850	3,924,151	297,889	260,671	4,500,712
Total	$22,560,830	$1,139,462	$541,554	$24,121,857

Total value of imports for four years........................$43,993,829
Total value of exports for four years........................$24,121,589

Excess of imports over exports in four years....................$19,872,245

The foreign trade of Philadelphia is small, and the port ranks fourth in the country. The value of foreign merchandise imported into New-York during the month of July last, was equal to the imports into Philadelphia for any two of the past four years.

4.—CITY OF BALTIMORE.*

Baltimore, the most southern of the four great "commercial cities" on the Atlantic seaboard of our country, from its position, the rapidity of its growth, and its prospective greatness, is entitled to a more extended notice than is usually given to the cities sketched in this series. It is the largest and most striking instance yet presented to the world, of the rapid centralization and development of all the elements of commercial greatness, which characterize the New World. Barely fifty years old as a city, it already takes rank, in population and trade, with those across the water which have been struggling up toward importance for centuries, and with all the vigor and elasticity of early youth, is pressing on hopefully to a bright and strong manhood.

It is located upon an estuary, or small bay, which makes up for about two and a half miles on the north side of the Patapsco river, about ten miles from the entrance of this river into the Chesapeake Bay, of which it is for this distance an arm. By ship channel it is about 200 miles from the ocean, in 39° 17' 23' north latitude, and longitude 0 26' east from Washington.

The city contains about 10,000 acres of land, extending about four and a half miles from east to west, and three and a half from north to south. It consisted originally of more than fifty elevations, or hills, separated by abrupt valleys, or ravines, and in a few instances by formidable marshes; while nearly in the centre it is divided by a rapid stream of water, known as "Jones' Falls." This stream has on three occasions—October 5, 1786, August 9, 1817, and June 14, 1837—overflowed its banks and done great damage, both to life and property. The city has, in consequence, been at great pains to remove all obstructions from its bed, and have the numerous bridges by which it is crossed sprung by a single arch, and at such a height as to remove all further danger from this source. The division east of *the falls* is again nominally subdivided into two parts—*Fell's Point* and *Old Town*. *The Point* is the most easterly portion of the city, has the advantage of greater depth of water than the upper harbor contains, is the resort of seamen and immigrants, and the place where the greater part of the ship-building and manufactures of the city are carried on. *Old Town* lies north and west of this, and is principally inhabited by mechanics and laborers.

The portion west of *the falls* is, in like manner, divided into two parts—the *City Proper* and *Spring Garden* section. The former is the centre of trade, and contains most of the residences of the more wealthy of the citizens; while the latter, which is the extreme south-western quarter, is the residence of many mechanics and laborers. It is the lowest and most unhealthy portion of the city, being subject, to a considerable extent, at certain seasons of the year, to bilious and intermittent diseases. While the uneven and broken nature of the ground, with the exception of this quarter, has severely taxed both public and private resources and enterprise, it has been made to obviate, to a great degree, the necessity of extended sewers, (the whole amount of which is less than two miles,) and greatly conduced to the healthfulness of the city. Indeed, in this important respect, Baltimore will not suffer by comparison with the most highly favored cities of our land.

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* From U. S. Journal.

The first settlers on the shores of the Chesapeake Bay seem to have moved, for a long time, almost at random in the selection of the sites of their future towns, and to have been blindly experimenting with the laws of nature, or attempting capriciously to produce a factitious determination of wealth and population to points never designed for such a fortune by their Maker. Hence, some places for which they mapped out future greatness, and which they tried to nurse up to it, are now almost as much a wilderness as when they were first discovered:—while other spots, in which they saw no comeliness, are now thriving marts.

In this way the most unrivalled advantages of the location of Baltimore were long quite overlooked, and when, as late as the year 1729, they attracted attention, and the town was laid out, only a part of it was under cultivation, and that as a farm, while the rest was a wilderness.

The part thus first laid out (60 acres in extent,) was the central southern portion, about the head of what is now familiarly called "*the basin.*" Three years subsequent, in 1732, ten acres east of "*Jones' Falls,*" a part of the present "*Old Town,*" were laid out under the name of Jonestown, and the two became united as the town of Baltimore, in 1745. For some years its growth was by no means rapid. It was surrounded by older and jealous rivals, and was obliged to contend with all the obstacles which they could throw in its way. An authentic sketch of it, made in 1752, by Mr. John Moale, is in the rooms of the American Historical Society, from which it appears that it then contained about twenty-five houses, four of which were built of brick, while the rest were quite primitive in their structure. Sixteen years later, in 1768, it became the shire town of the county, and arrangements were made for the erection of a court-house and jail, which had been previously located at Joppa, a place now known only in history. Its first newspaper, "*The Maryland Journal and Baltimore Advertiser,*" weekly, was issued on the 20th of August, 1773, and a second, "*Dunlap's Maryland Gazette,*" in 1775. It was not deemed a port of entry till 1780, when first a custom-house was opened, and a naval officer appointed. Until that time all vessels trading to and from the port entered, cleared, and obtained their registers at Annapolis. None of the streets were paved till 1782, when a commencement was made on Baltimore-street, from that day to this the main street of the city. In the same year the first regular communication with Philadelphia—a line of stage-coaches—was opened: watchmen begun to be employed in 1784, and, not to enlarge by tedious detail, it begun to assume metropolitan airs, and obtained an act of incorporation on the 31st day of December, 1796. The city government was organized in the following year, and from the beginning of 1798, Baltimore may be classed among American cities.

In 1775 a census was taken, at the expense of a few private individuals, and the town found to contain 564 houses, and 5,934 persons. Some idea of its steadily rapid growth since, may be obtained from the following:

Years.	Slaves.	Free colored.	White.	Total.
1790	1,255	323	11,925	13,503
1800	2,843	2,771	20,900	26,514
1810	4,672	5,671	36,212	46,555
1820	4,357	10,326	48,055	62,738
1830	4,120	14,790	51,710	70,620
1840	3,212	17,980	81,321	102,513

The census of the present year, when it shall be taken, will probably show a population of not less than 135,000, and, it is generally supposed, will considerably exceed that number.

Its increase in wealth has kept pace with the increase of its population. In 1808 the value of taxable property in the city was computed at $2,522,780. The following is the official estimate of the value of the property and number of houses erected in the city for the last six years:

	Real and personal property.	No. of houses erected.
1844	$53,790,170	609
1845	53,750,496	1,508
1846	54,851,217	—
1847	72,079,322	2,006
1848	74,228,276	1,920
1849	78.252,588	1,894
1850	80,237,960	—

There is, however, every reason to believe that the actual value of the property far exceeds this taxable estimate.

In all the branches of business, in business facilities, and in the public works by which cities are embellished, Baltimore has kept pace with the increase of its wealth and population. It is familiarly known as "*The Monumental City*"—a name derived from certain monuments which the public spirit of its inhabitants has erected to commemorate worthy men and heroic deeds in their own or their country's history. The largest of these is the one erected to the memory of Washington. This stands upon the highest of the original hills of the city, at the intersection of Charles and Monument streets. The summit of this hill is one hundred and fifty feet above the water in the harbor, and from this the monument, of white marble, rises one hundred and eighty feet. It consists of a base fifty feet square, and twenty feet in height, surmounted by a Doric Column, twenty feet in diameter, within which is a winding stair-case leading to the top, which is crowned with a colossal statue of Washington, thirteen feet in height. The top commands an excellent view of the city, harbor, river, bay, and surrounding country, for the enjoyment of which it is much visited by strangers. This monument cost upwards of $100,000, which was raised by means of a lottery.

The monument next in importance is "*Battle Monument,*" upon Calvert-street, between Fayette and Lexington, erected in 1815, to the memory of those who fell at North Point the previous year, in defence of the city. This monument, also of white marble, is fifty-two feet high, and was erected by the general and voluntary subscriptions of the inhabitants. The base is Egyptian—the column, a bundle of Roman faces, upon the bands of which are inscribed the names of those it commemorates, and the whole is surmounted by a female figure, emblematic of the Genius of the City, holding aloft a civic crown, the award of those who averted her capture at the expense of their lives.

The city now contains upwards of a hundred churches, three universities, four colleges, and many beautiful and commodious public buildings. To notice these, however, further than they affect the commercial or mercantile character of the city, is no part of the design of this article. The Merchants' Exchange, at the corner of Gay and Lombard streets, is a spacious building, 225 feet long by 141 feet wide, and contains, besides the usual reading-room, and room for the meeting of the merchants, the Custom-House, a bank, telegraph offices, a hotel, &c. The room in which the merchants' meetings are held is fifty-three feet square, has upon its east and west sides colonnades, the columns of which are of fine Italian marble, each a single block, and it is lighted by a dome 115 feet above the street.

Building lots in this city are held by a tenure somewhat peculiar. About the year 1747, a practice originated of disposing of lots by leases for long terms—usually ninety-nine years—at a certain specified annual rent, the leases generally containing a covenant for renewal, on the same terms as the original, from time to time forever, at the option of the lessee, or his assigns. This system of "ground rents" has found favor with all classes.

To the wealthy it offers the convenience of a ready and safe investment, with an unalterable and certain return of due interest: while the young tradesmen, the successful prosecution of whose business demands the employment of his whole capital therein, and the poor mechanic, who may be unable to purchase a lot for the erection of a shop or residence, it furnishes with a building site without present expense; in other words, it, in effect, gives them a permanent loan to the amount of the value of the building lot, without endorser or mortgage. The buildings, with the lots, are thus held as personal, instead of real estate, and, in consequence, transfers are made with much greater facility.

So convenient has this been found a practice, that, in many instances, nominal "ground rents"—as of one per cent. per lot—are created with an eye to this special convenience. About nine-tenths of the occupied ground of the city is believed to be leasehold property of this nature.

The banking operations of the city are conducted by twelve banks, with a capital of $7,225,794, and a circulation of $2,074,587. The following table will show their condition at the beginning of the current year:

Banks.	Capital.	Circulation, Jan. 1, 1850.	Deposits, Jan. 1, 1850.
Bank of Baltimore	$1,200,000	$230,631	$549,215
Union Bank of Maryland	916,350	160,710	310,170
Mechanics' Bank	591,276	265,706	545,766
Commercial and Farmers' Bank	512,560	196,130	410,936
Farmers' and Merchants' Bank	393,560	110,143	129,138
Marine Bank	310,000	112,170	229,495
Franklin Bank	301,850	84,159	110,568
Merchants' Bank	1,500,000	171,320	369,478
Western Bank	308,280	290,025	363,501
Farmers' and Planters' Bank	600,625	337,653	315,184
Chesapeake Bank	341,293	114,940	331,364
Citizens' Bank	250,000		
Total	$7,225,794	$2,074,587	$3,664,845

The Citizens' Bank, whose operations have been for the last few years suspended, was re-organized, and resumed the regular prosecution of its business on the 15th of April, of the present year. It is for this reason that it is not carried out in the columns of circulation and deposits.

There are ten well-conducted fire and marine insurance companies and one health insurance company in active operation, while more than this number, incorporated in other states or in England, have their agencies established, and do a large amount of business. The policy of the state, however, has been to discourage these, and throw the whole business into the hands of the societies of its own creation; and all agents of societies incorporated abroad are compelled to comply with the provisions of the Act of Assembly, passed at the December session, 1846, ch. 357, which provides that "any individual, or association of individuals, or corporations not incorporated, and authorized by the laws of this state to make insurances on *marine or fire risks*, or *insurance on lives*, or *other insurances*," &c., shall first pay to the State Treasurer one hundred dollars for a license so to do; and also deposit with him good and sufficient bond in the penalty of five thousand dollars, conditioned for the furnishing to the Treasurer half yearly, on the first Monday in January and July respectively, a true list and account, verified by his oath, of all premiums by him received, and therewith faithfully to pay to the treasurer "the sum of three dollars per centum" of all such premiums.

Difficult as would be the task of enumerating in full the pursuits of the citizens, it would be hardly less difficult to name a branch of business which is not prosecuted to a greater or less degree within the limits of the city, or in its immediate vicinity. Iron and copper-works, woolen and cotton manufactures, flouring, chemicals, white-lead, glass, shot, printers' types, pottery, sugar-refining, distilling, saddlery, agricultural implements, powder, ship-building, ropes, oil-cloth, carpeting, house furniture, hats, leather, are but a part of her manufactures and of the arts which give employment to her people, and bring wealth to her coffers.

The total value of goods shipped from Baltimore during the year ending June 30th, 1849, was $8,000,600; of which $7,786,695 were of articles of domestic produce, and $213,965 of foreign articles. The exports were in 634 vessels, with a tonnage of 149,928 tons, and employing 6,335 men in their navigation. Of the above, 491 vessels were American, and 145 under the flags of eighteen different foreign nations.

The foreign imports into Baltimore during the same time were valued at $4,976,731; of which $4,613,219 were in American vessels, and $363,512 in foreign vessels. The foreign imports were received in 484 vessels, with a tonnage amounting to 110,068 tons, and manned by 4,581 men.

The total number of vessels owned and registered at Baltimore on the 30th of June, 1849, embraced an aggregate tonnage of 134,025,35 tons, of which 53,624,75 tons were engaged as licensed coasters, and 11,464,28 tons employed in steam navigation. During the same year there were built at Baltimore 63 vessels, viz. :—9 ships and barks, 8 brigs, 41 schooners and 5 steamers, with an aggregate tonnage of 12,199,66 tons.—*U. S. Journal.*

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—AFRICAN TRADE AND PRODUCTIONS.

The value of the commerce of Africa to the United States is steadily and rapidly advancing, and needs but encouragement from our government to make it, in a few years, as valuable to our country as that of Great Britain was twenty years ago.

During the last ten or fifteen years great discoveries have been made in and about Africa, and many new and important facts brought to light. In addition to the numerous eligible points on the coast, occupied by slave traders, the French have had for some time a settlement on the Senegal, and have recently taken possession of the Gaboon region : the Danes are on the Rio Volta ; the Dutch on the gold coast ; the Portuguese at Loango ; the Americans at Liberia —now formed into an independent Republic, with laws modeled after our own ; —and the English at Sierra Leone, in the Gambia, and on the gold coast.

From the results of these colonies and the testimony of travellers, such as Park, Lander, Laird, Clapperton, Burckhart, McQueen, Duncan, and others, we are afforded evidence that nature has scattered her bounties with the most lavish hand ; and that what is required to make them available to the noblest purposes, is a legitimate commerce, sustained by our rulers and directed by honorable men.

Among the productions of the soil may be named :

Grain.—Rice, Indian corn, Guinea corn, millett, wheat, domah, &c.

Fruits.—Oranges, lemons, limes, guavas, pines, citrons, papaws, plantains, bananas, dates, tamarinds, Mango plum, &c.

Roots.—Manioc, igname, batalee, yams, cassada, arrowroot, ginger, sweet potato, beans, peas, &c. &c.

Timber.—Teak, ebony, lignumvitæ, rosewood, oak, mahogany, and forty or fifty other species of wood, suitable for all purposes.

Nuts.—Palm nut, shea or butter nut, cocoa nut, cola nut, croton nut, castor oil nut, netta nut, pea nut, &c.

Dyes.—Carmine, yellow various shades, blue, orange various shades, red, crimson, brown, &c.

Dyewoods.—Camwood, barwood, &c.

Gums.—Copal, Senegal, mastic, sudan, &c.

Drugs.—Aloes, cassia, senna, frankincense, copaiva, &c.

Minerals.—Gold, iron, copper, emery, sal amoniac, nitre, &c.

Miscellaneous.—Sugar cane, coffee, cocoa, cotton, indigo, tobacco, India rubber, beeswax, ostrich feathers, hides, skins, ivory, pepper of all varieties, spices, hemp, honey, &c. &c.

In the animal kingdom I find that, in addition to the wild beasts which infest its forests and occupy its swamps, and whose skins, teeth and horns are valuable as articles of commerce, immense herds of cattle, incalculable in number, range its plains. Hides, therefore, to almost any amount, may be obtained. Sheep and goat skins, of a very large kind, are equally numerous and very valuable. Fish of all kinds visit the shores and rivers in innumerable shoals, and are easily taken in large quantities during the proper season.

The mineral kingdom has not been explored, but enough is known to show that the precious metals abound, particularly gold. This is found throughout the known regions of Africa, in beds of rivers and in mines. Dupuis and Bowditch speak of the " solid lumps of rock gold" which ornament the persons of the attendants in the Court of the King of Ashantee, at Coomassie. Mrs. Bowditch says, the great men will frequently, on state occasions, so load their wrists with these lumps that they are obliged to support them on the head of a boy.

The iron ore found near Sierra Leone is particularly rich, yielding seventy-nine per cent., and is said to be well adapted to making steel. Copper is so abundant in Mayomba that they gather from the surface of the ground enough for their purposes.

A few words on the productiveness of the soil. It has been proved that two crops of corn, sweet potatoes and several other vegetables can be and are raised in a year. They yield a larger crop than the best soils in America. One acre of rich land, well tilled, says Governor Ashmun, will produce three hundred dollars worth of indigo. Half an acre may be made to grow half a ton of arrow-root. Four acres laid out in coffee plants, will, after the third year, produce a clear income of two or three hundred dollars. Half an acre of cotton trees, yielding cotton of an equal, if not superior, length and strength of staple and fineness and color than fair "Orleans," will clothe a whole family, and one acre of canes will make the same number independent of all the world for sugar. The dyes in particular, are found to resist both acids and light, properties which no other dyes that we know of, possess.

In the year 1840, 39 British vessels arrived at Cape Coast. Since that time the trade has been gradually improving. The last year's report, which we have received, sets down the imports into Cape Coast as amounting to £423,170 sterling, and the exports as £325,008 sterling. The imports during the same period into Asia were £95,000 and the exports £115,000 sterling. The total export of British merchandize to Africa is at present estimated at £5,000,000 sterling per annum.

The average import of *palm oil alone into Liverpool*, for some years past, has been at least 15,000 tons a year, valued at about £400,000 sterling, and giving employment to 25,000 or 30,000 tons of shipping. The imports into the republic of Liberia are estimated by an American (white) physician, who has spent six years there, at $120,000 per annum, and the exports as reaching very nearly the same amount. The commerce of our own country with Africa is daily becoming an important item. The principal seats of this trade are Salem, Mass., and Providence, R.I. New York occasionally sends, while our city has at the present time five sail of brigs and barques actively and profitably employed. One of our merchants stated, that he cleared $12,000 in one year on the single article of ground or pea nuts. Strange as it may appear, nearly all these nuts are transhipped to France, where they command a ready sale, are there converted into, and thence find their way over the world in the shape of *olive oil*—the skill of the French chemists enabling them to simulate the real Lucca and Florence oil, so as to deceive the nicest judges. Indeed, the oil from pea nuts possesses a sweetness and delicacy not to be surpassed.

While we greatly regret that there are no means of acquiring proper and correct information of the commerce of Africa, yet we presume the facts we have already given, and the recollection that there are at least—according to the best informed parties—160,000,000 of inhabitants in that continent, the whole of whom are not only willing, but anxious, to exchange the various products of their prolific soil for the dry goods, powder, rum, beads, pipes, tobacco, lead bars, iron bars, hardware, glassware, earthenware, brassware, cowries, soap, flints, tallow and sperm candles, wines, beef, pork, lard, flour, meal, hams, tongues, biscuit, crackers, perfumery, and the thousand other articles produced by the skill and industry of our citizens.

So important and valuable has this rapidly increasing commerce become to Great Britain,* that we cannot but notice the great efforts which have been made, and are making, by that power, to secure *all* the trade of Africa to her merchants. In addition to the aid given to various enterprising travellers, and the enormous expense borne by her in keeping up a large and efficient squadron on the coast, and in sustaining her colonies there, we behold her pouring forth immense sums of money on the celebrated "Niger expedition;" in sending Mr. Duncan to negociate a treaty with the powerful King of Dahomey, and in the ready acknowledgment of the independence of the republic of Liberia—

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* Since writing the foregoing, information has been received by the steamer America, "that it is in contemplation by some Liverpool merchants—with every prospect of success—to form an African Company, with a capital of £100,000, in 2000 shares of £50 each, for the purpose of trade with Africa."

entering immediately into a treaty of commerce and amity—and the kind attention shown President Roberts during his brief stay in that country.

It therefore well becomes our government to awaken themselves to the importance of the African trade. Ours are emphatically a commercial people, and to enable them to enter into competition with the English traders, demands the earliest and most serious attention. Wm. C.

2. COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, 1849.

In our review for March last, Vol. VIII., p. 277-280, we analyzed and presented the Treasury Statement of American Commerce and Navigation for the year, ending 1st July, 1849, but want of space prevented us from completing the details. Since that time we have been so much occupied with other matters that it escaped our attention. We proceed, therefore, to supply the defects, and will follow up the statistics with those of the next report to be presented to Congress in December next, and coming down to July, 1850.

3. EXPORTS AND IMPORTS UNITED STATES.

COUNTRIES.	Foreign produce exported.*	Total domestic and foreign exports.	Value of imports.
1. Russia	$197,947	$1,135,504	$840,238
2. Prussia	9,516	44,219	17,687
3. Sweden and Norway	38,506	763,787	731,846
4. Swedish West Indies	737	95,865	13,968
5. Denmark		55,138	19,204
6. Danish West Indies	54,149	781,346	339,141
7. Hanse Towns	604,682	3,314,930	7,742,864
8. Hanover	85	8,581	
9. Holland	242,027	2,397,355	1,501,643
10. Dutch East Indies	54,118	334,941	354,528
11. Dutch West Indies	50,252	367,318	453,090
12. Dutch Guiana	52	104,065	58,281
13. Belgium	288,243	2,731,307	1,844,293
14. England	1,880.878	71,042,870	58,818,425
15. Scotland	58,472	3,608,432	1,959,320
16 Ireland	22,526	3,938,868	376,793
17. Gibraltar	78,467	802,286	1,193
18. Malta	62,734	113,967	8,405
19. British East Indies	76,562	409,524	2,036,254
20. Cape of Good Hope		94,422	71,298
21. Mauritius	5,000	26,731	
22. Honduras	34,620	225,967	262,417
23. British Guiana	3,759	666,074	25,520
24. British West Indies	203,097	4,138.931	997,865
25. Canada	1,914,401	4,234,724	1,481,082
26. British American colonies	257,760	3,869,543	1,345,798
27. Other British colonies			3,613
28. France on the Atlantic	2,818,303	14,464.915	23,209.878
29. France on the Mediterranean	168,521	1,045,668	1,153,905
30. French West Indies	14,267	194,998	71,460
31. Miquelon and French fisheries		20,370	
32. French Guiana		46,161	23,417
33. Bourbon (French East Indies)		9,473	
34. French possessions in Africa			
35. Spain on the Atlantic	31,479	200,550	313,490
36. Spain on the Mediterranean	19,827	1,639,250	1,005,687
37. Teneriffe and other Canaries	654	18,494	38,919
38. Manilla and Philippine Islands	8,669	146,537	1,127,114
39. Cuba	668,068	5,309,213	10,659,956
40. Other Spanish West Indies	33,234	556,526	1,964,861
41. Portugal	6,273	175,994	322,220
42. Madeira	759	118,637	73,730
43. Fayal and other Azores	1.839	16,043	17,058
44. Cape de Verds	3,815	66,462	1,853
45. Italy	293,419	1,104,869	1,550,896

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* The *Domestic Produce* exported was embodied in our tables, Vol. VIII., p. 278, and we refer the reader to them. The importance of preserving complete sets of the Review, and binding them, must be evident to every reader; we receive orders now from most of the large public and private libraries.

COUNTRIES.	Foreign produce exports.	Total domestic and foreign exports.	Value of imports.
46. Sicily	4,854	29,213	530,244
47. Sardinia	21,414	482,364	42,538
48. Tuscany		30,076	
49. Trieste and other Austrian ports	464,376	1,406,865	409,178
50. Turkey	85,120	278,996	374,064
51. Ionian Islands			291
52. Hayti	70,015	602,592	901,724
53. Mexico	1,042,869	2,090,868	2,216,719
54. Central Republic of America	23,739	136,219	56,017
55. New Grenada	53 324	297,784	158,960
56. Venezuela	106,213	537,634	1,413,096
57. Bolivia			
58. Brazil	264,597	3,102,977	8,494,368
59. Cisplatine Republic	13,089	147,727	79,924
60. Argentine Republic	172,076	767,594	1,709,827
61. Chili	294,643	2,017,100	1,817,723
62. Peru	18,041	111,236	446,953
63. China	122,279	1,583,224	5,513,785
64. Burmah			
65. Liberia			
66. West Indies generally	2,395	108,724	
67. South America generally	8,019	93,234	16,159
68. Europe generally		18,588	
69. Asia generally	19,375	363,811	209.669
70. Africa generally	31,642	708,411	495,742
71. South Seas and Pacific Ocean	63,068	399,728	85,318
72. Indian Ocean			
73. Atlantic Ocean			
74. Sandwich Islands			43,875
75. Northwest coast			
76. Uncertain places			
Total	13,088,865	145,755,820	147,857,439

4. EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE STATES.

	EXPORTS.		Total of American and foreign produce.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.		
	Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.		In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.
Maine	$1,279,393.	$7,288.	$1,286,681.	$577,403.	$144,006.	$721,409
N. Hampshire.	5,852.	26.	5,878.	51,029.	13,322.	64,351
Vermont	299,938.	388,931.	638,869.	147,721.		147,721
Massachusetts.	8,174,667.	2,090,195.	10,264,862.	18,367,959.	6,377,958.	24,745,917
R. Island	172,691.	5,461.	178,152.	230,147.	7,331.	237,478
Connecticut	264,000.		264,000.	220,350.	14,393.	234,743
New-York	36,738,215.	9,224,885.	45,963,100.	76,148,308.	16,419,061.	92,567,369
New-Jersey	355.	8.	363.	3,360.	893.	4,253
Pennsylvania	4,850,872.	492,549.	5,343,421.	10,008,073.	637,427.	10,645,500
Delaware	37,850.	379.	38,229.	898.	502.	1,400
Maryland	7,786,695.	213,965.	8,000,660.	4,613,219.	363,512.	4,976,731
D. of Columbia.	111,607.		111,607.	35,668.		35,668
Virginia	3,369,422.	4,316.	3,373,738.	223,218.	18,717.	241,935
N. Carolina	270,076.		270,076.	105,975.	7,171.	113,146
S. Carolina	9,699.875.	1,301.	9,701,176.	996,168.	479,527.	1,475,695
Georgia	6,857,806.		6,857,806.	176,437.	194,587.	371,024
Florida	2,518,027.		2,518,027.	42,811.	20,400.	63,211
Alabama	12,823,723.		12.823,725.	108,913.	548,234.	657,147
Louisiana	36,957,118.	654,549.	37,611,667.	7,853,664.	2,197,033.	10,050,697
Mississippi				2,433.		2,433
Tennessee				15,145.		15,145
Missouri				130.382.		130,382
Ohio	149,724.		149,724.	137,552.	12,287.	149,839
Kentucky				79,738.		79,738
Michigan	127,844.	5,007.	132,851.	98,141.		98,141
Illinois	88,412.	5.	88,417.	5,173.	4,593.	9,766
Texas	82,791.		82,791.	2,267.	14,333.	16,609
Total	$132,666,955	13,088,865	145,755,820	120,382,152	27,475,287	147,857,4

5. SHIP BUILDING IN UNITED STATES.

Statement showing the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in the several states and Territories of the United States, from **1815** *to* **1849**, *inclusive.*

	CLASS OF VESSELS.					Total number of vessels built.	TOTAL.	
	Ships.	Brigs.	Schr's.	Sloops and canal boats.	Steam'rs.		Tons and 95ths.	
1815	136	224	680	274		1,314	154,624	30
1816	76	122	781	424		1,403	131,668	04
1817	34	86	559	394		1,073	86,393	37
1818	53	85	428	332		898	82,421	20
1819	53	82	473	242		850	79,817	86
1820	21	60	301	152		534	47,784	01
1821	43	89	248	127		507	55,856	01
1822	64	131	260	168		623	75,346	93
1823	55	127	260	165	15	622	75,006	57
1824	56	156	377	166	26	781	90,939	00
1825	56	197	538	168	35	994	114,997	25
1826	71	187	482	227	45	1,012	126,438	35
1827	58	133	464	241	38	934	104,342	67
1828	73	108	474	196	33	884	98,375	58
1829	44	68	485	145	43	785	77,098	65
1830	25	56	403	116	37	637	58,094	94
1831	72	95	416	94	34	711	85,962	68
1832	132	143	568	122	100	1,065	144,539	16
1833	144	169	625	185	65	1,188	161,626	36
1834	98	94	497	180	68	937	118,330	37
1835 (for 9 months	25	50	302	100	30	507	46,238	58
1836	93	65	444	164	124	890	113,627	49
1837	67	72	507	168	135	949	122,987	28
1838	66	79	501	153	90	898	113,135	44
1839	83	89	439	122	125	858	120,988	34
1840	97	109	378	224	64	872	118,309	23
1841	114	101	312	157	78	762	118,893	71
1842	116	91	273	404	137	1,021	129,083	64
1843 (for 9 months)	58	34	138	173	79	482	63,617	77
1844	73	47	204	279	163	766	103,537	29
1845	124	87	322	342	163	1,038	146,018	02
1846	100	164	576	355	225	1,420	188,203	93
1847	151	168	689	392	198	1,598	243,732	67
1848	254	174	701	547	175	1,851	318.075	54
1849	198	148	623	370	208	1,547	256,577	47

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6. BREADSTUFFS AND PROVISIONS EXPORTED FROM UNITED STATES FROM 1821 TO 1849.

Years.	Value.	Years.	Value.	Total.
1821	$12,341,901 00	1836	10,614,130 00	
1822	13,856,847 00	1837	9,588,259 00	
1823	13,767,847 00	1838	9,636,650 00	
1824	15,059,484 00	1839	14,147,779 00	
1825	11,634,449 00	1840	19,067,535 00	
1826	11,303,496 00	1841	17,196,102 00	
1827	11,685,556 00	1842	16,902,876 00	
1828	11,461,144 00	1843	11,204,123 00	
1829	13,131,858 00	1844	17,970,135 00	
1830	12,075,430 00	1845	16,743,421 00	
1831	17,538,227 00	1846	27,701,121 00	
1832	12,424,703 00	1847	68,701,921 00	
1833	14,209,128 00	1848	37,472,751 00	
1834	11,524,024 00	1849	38,155,507 00	
1835	12,009,399 00			$509,155,912 00

7.—STEAM COMMUNICATION BETWEEN THE SOUTH AND EUROPE.

We publish the annexed with great satisfaction. When in Charleston during last September, we learned that an enterprising gentleman of that city had visited Europe, for the purpose of making such arrangements as would lead to the immediate establishment of a line of steam-ships to Charleston. God grant it may be true! Let the south concentrate in her midst *all* the elements of power.

SOUTHERN OCEAN STEAM NAVIGATION CONVENTION.

The Norfolk and Portsmouth (Virginia) papers contain the proceedings of the convention assembled at Old Point Hotel on the 4th instant, to consider the expediency of establishing a direct trade from the south with Europe, and of forming an Ocean Steam Navigation Company, &c. Horace L. Kent, Esquire, presided. The meeting continued till the 5th, when James Lyons, of Richmond, reported from a committee of thirteen, a series of resolutions, which were adopted, the principal being as follows:

Resolved, As the opinion of this convention, that it is of great importance to Virginia, and all the southern states whose produce is sent to New-York and other northern ports for shipment to foreign markets, and whose passengers embark at those ports, that a direct communication, by a line of steamers, should be established between Chesapeake Bay and the Island of Great Britain, and thence with other markets of the world, until a direct communication can be established with the continent of Europe.

Resolved, That the southern states are entitled to participate equally with the north, and every other section of the country, in the benefits of the government of the United States, to which they have contributed, and do contribute in every valuable quality and material, as largely as any other section of the nation; and it is the duty, therefore, of the government, to afford them equal postal facilities with those which are afforded to the north, or any other section. And as it would be a very great facility to the people of the southern states, generally, and especially southern Atlantic states, as well as economical, to be able to transmit and receive their letters to and from a southern port, instead of sending them to and receiving them from Boston and New-York, it is the duty of the government to afford as much aid to the establishment of a line of Ocean Steamers from the south as it has afforded to similar lines from the north.

Committees were appointed to memorialize Congress and the state legislature, in furtherance of the objects of the meeting, and an adjournment then took place, to such time and place as one of these committees shall designate. Speeches were made by Hon. Messrs. Meade, of Virginia; Ewing, of Tennessee; Morehead, of Kentucky; Judge Mason, Robert G. Scott, and James Lyons.

8.—THE NORTH AMERICAN WHALE AND SEAL FISHERIES.

From the report of Mr. James Arnold, made to a convention of the friends of a Protective Tariff, in 1843, we gather some interesting particulars in regard to this branch of the fisheries. Six hundred and fifty ships are employed, measuring 193,000 tons, and manned by 16,500 men. These vessels, when ready for sea, with their stock of provisions on board, are worth $20,120,000. The returns in 1841 were $7,359,022. After paying the *lays* of the men and the expenses of the voyage, there was left as the profits on the $20,000,000, $4,585,634. The whale ships are owned by citizens exclusively, for the statutes of the United States expressly prohibit foreigners from entering into the whale fishery under the American flag. A singular case occurred in New-Bedford about fifteen years ago. An individual who owned the sixteenth of a ship, became very indignant, because in some particular, the owners of the fifteen-sixteenths did not adopt his views. The ship was just ready for the South Seas. He sold for one dollar, one half of his sixteenth, to a little English tailor in the town, for the express purpose of effecting a forfeiture of the whole ship! He immeately caused information to be communicated to the Custom-House officers, and had the vessel seized as she was about to weigh anchor.

The other owners at once filed their libel in Admiralty, setting forth the fraudulent sale, and the illegal intent of the parties. While suit was pending, the self-willed owner became fearful that the affair would terminate in the forfeiture of his own part, and no more, and consented to sell out to the others at a fair price; and the federal officers consented to the cancelling of the pretended sale. We have spoken of the pecuniary value of the fisheries; but it is as a nursery for seamen, that they are a subject of such interest and importance. Their dangers and hardships form the character of the American seamen.

From Macgregor's book we make an extract, which describes the manner of life of the New-England fishermen. This is the prose:

"The Americans follow two or more modes of fitting out for fisheries. The first is accomplished by six or seven farmers, or their sons, building a schooner during winter, which they man themselves, (as all the Americans on the sea-coast are more or less seamen, as well as farmers,) and after fitting the vessel with necessary stores, they proceed to the Banks, Gulf of St. Lawrence, or Labrador, and loading their vessels with fish, make a voyage between spring and harvest. The proceeds they divide, after paying any balance they may owe for outfit. They remain at home to assist in gathering their crops, and proceed again for another cargo—which is salted down, and not afterwards dried: this is termed the mud-fish, and kept for home consumption. The other plan is, when a merchant, or any other person owning a vessel, lets her to ten or fifteen men on shares, he finds the vessel and nets; the men pay for all the provisions, hooks and lines, and for the salt necessary to cure their proportion of the fish. One of the number is acknowledged master, but he has to catch fish as well as the others, and receives about twenty shillings per month for navigating the vessel; the crew have five-eighths of the fish caught, and the owners three-eighths of the whole.

"The first spring voyage is made to the Banks; the second, either to the Banks, Gulf of St. Lawrence, or the Coast of Labrador; the third, or fall voyage, is again to the Banks; and a fourth, or second fall voyage, is also made, sometimes, to the Banks."

From the Pilgrim address of Mr. Prentiss, we give the same fact, but adorned with all the ornaments that a gorgeous imagination could throw over the subject. This is the poetry of the sailor's life:

"They drive the Dryads from their accustomed haunts, and force them to desert each favorite grove; for upon river, creek and bay, they are busy transforming the rude forest into stanch and gallant vessels. From every inlet or indenture along the rocky shore, swim forth these ocean birds—born in the wild wood, fledged upon the wave. Behold how they spread their white pinions to the favoring breeze, and wing their flight to every quarter of the globe—the carrier pigeons of the world! It is upon the unstable element, the sons of New-England have achieved their greatest triumphs. Their adventurous prows vex the waters of every sea. Bold and restless as the old Northern Vikins, they go forth to seek their fortunes in the mighty deep. The ocean is their pasture, and over its white prairies, they follow the monstrous herds that feed upon the azure fields. As the hunter casts his lasso upon the wild horse, so they throw their lines upon the tumbling whale. They 'draw out the Leviathan with a hook'—they 'fill his skin with barbed iron,' and in spite of his terrible strength, they 'part him among the merchants.' To them, there are no 'pillars of Hercules.' They seek with avidity new regions, and fear not to be 'the first that ever burst' into unknown seas. Had they been the companions of Columbus, the great mariner would not have been urged to return, though he had sailed westward to his dying day."

Macgregor also furnishes a graphic description of the Seal Fishery, with which we conclude this article. We think the term of "Codfish Aristocracy" need not be deemed so very offensive after all:

SEAL FISHERY.

"The great and primary business of the people of Newfoundland is that of pursuing and catching the inhabitants of the ocean. If habit, as is generally allowed, becomes nature, the Newfoundlanders are naturally, from their pursuits, certainly the most adventurous and fearless men in the world. Courage and industry, which certainly prevail, are to them absolutely necessary.

"The Seal Fishery, as it is generally termed, has only become important within the present century. It is little more than thirty years since the first vessels ventured among those formidable fields of ice that float from the northern regions, during the months of March, April and May, down to the coast of Newfoundland. Those who are acquainted with the terrific grandeur, particularly during stormy weather, of the lofty islands and mountains of ice, covering often from two hundred to three hundred miles of the ocean, and occasionally arrested by the coasts or shoals, will admit that it requires more intrepidity to brave the dangers of these elements than to encounter a military fortification.

"The vessels equipped for the seal fishery, are from 60 to 120 tons each, with crews of from sixteen to thirty men. They are always prepared for sea, with necessary stores, fire-arms, poles to defend them from the ice, etc., before the feast of Saint Patrick. Immediately after, the crews at the harbors, then frozen over, collect together, with all assistance from the shoremen, and dividing themselves into two rows on the ice, and provided with hatchets, large saws, and strong poles, fixed on two lines far enough separate to allow their largest schooners to pass.

"Each party cuts along its respective line, and they divide the solid mass between them into squares, which are shoved with poles under the firm ice, continuing this laborious operation until a channel is open to the sea. The vessels then proceed to the field-ice, pushing their way through the openings, or working to windward of it, until they meet it covered with vast herds of seal.

"Where these occur, the part on which they are is called 'seal-meadows.' These animals are surprised by the seal-hunters while they are sleeping on the ice, and attacked with fire-locks, or with strong bludgeons, which are considered preferable. But the hunters have frequently to shoot the large ones, which will turn upon the men and make resistance. The piteous moan and cry of the young ones during the slaughter, require more than common nerves to disregard. The hooded seals will draw their hoods, which are shot-proof, over their heads.

"The skins, with the fat, surrounding the bodices, are shipped off together, and the scalped carcasses left on the ice. The pelts, or scalps, are carried to vessels, and packed close in the hold; but the weather often is such as to leave no time to scalp the seal on the ice, and the carcasses are then carried whole to the vessel.

"The situation of these vessels, during the storms of snow and sleet, which they have at that season inevitably to encounter, is attended with fearful danger. Many vessels have been crushed to pieces by the tremendous power of the ice closing on them, and their crews have also not unfrequently perished. Storms during the night, among the ice, must be truly terrible; yet the hardy Newfoundland Seal Hunters seem even to court these sublime and hazardous adventures.

"When the vessels are loaded with scalps, or if unsuccessful, when the ice is scattered, and all except the islands is dissolved by the heat of the advancing summer, they return to their respective ports. Some vessels, which succeed soon after meeting the ice in filling up a cargo, make a second voyage.

"The fat, or seal-blubber, is separated from the skins, cut into pieces, and put into frame-work vats, through which, and small boughs inside, the oil oozes on being exposed to the sun. In three or four weeks it runs rapidly off, and becomes the seal oil of commerce.

"The planters sell their seal pelts to the merchants, who manufacture the oil and ship it off in hogsheads. Seals are stlll caught at Newfoundland and Labrador, on the plan first adopted, by strong nets set across such narrow channels as they are in the habit of passing through."—*Mr. Frost, in N. O Crescent.*

9.—TRADE OF CALIFORNIA.

We have received from Col. Collier, the Collector, (says the *Courier*,) the following synopsis of revenue received, bonded merchandise, &c. &c., up to the quarter ending June 30, 1850 :—

Total amount of merchandise in bond, June 30, 1850, is valued at..	$118,132 00
Total amount of duties on merchandise in bond, June 30, 1850....	38,948 50
Total amount of merchandise withdrawn for exportation, from November 12, 1849, to June 30, 1850, inclusive, valued at..........	236,242 00
Total amount of duties on merchandise withdrawn for exportation, from November 12, 1849, to June 30, 1850.....	75,569 85
Total amount received for duties from November 12, 1849, to June 30, 1850..	889,542 93

The following is a schedule of the American and foreign vessels arriving in the port of San Francisco, from May 1 to July 29, together with their tonnage and number of passengers that have arrived during that period :—

Nations.	*No.*	*Tons.*	*Nations.*	*No.*	*Tons.*
American	331	96,083	Tahitian	1	50
English	81	23,461	Austrian	1	335
Dutch	2	289	Bremen	3	502
French	11	3,115	Peruvian	6	1,382
Danish	4	691	Swedish	1	500
Mexican	4	876	Portuguese	1	278
Chilian	7	1,476	Equadorian	1	402
Italian	3	377	Norwegian	1	166
Hamburg	5	1,253	Prussian	1	420
Hawaiian	2	207	Russian	1	904

Total number of vessels, 467. Tonnage, American, 96,083 ; foreign, 36,784. Total, 132,867.

PASSENGERS.

	Males.	*Females.*	*Total.*
American	8,279	261	8,540
Foreign	4,936	815	5,751
Total	13,215	1,076	14,291

10.—OCEAN STEAM NAVIGATION

We present the following interesting statements in regard to the progress, capacity of boats, and present arrangement of ocean steamers between the United States and Europe.

"Three years ago ocean steam navigation was entirely in British hands. Two years since the only line of American steamships afloat suited to ocean navigation in the merchant service, consisted of the two small boats running between New York and the Bremen line. There are now *six* large steamers running regularly between New York and Chagres. There are an equal or greater number on the Pacific side, and existing projects contemplate *twenty* in all within a year for the Pacific seas. There are lines also to New Orleans, Havana, Savannah, Charleston, in addition to those named in the above list, and every shipyard and machine shop in New-York city is tasked to its utmost capacity in this branch of service. There are no less than 17 ocean steamers on the stocks at the present time in New-York city.

"The competition between the American and English lines will soon call into use the best skill of both countries. The recent voyages of the Atlantic, the first of Collins' line, and of the Asia, the last of Cunard's boats, show that an increase of speed may still be expected in ocean steamers.—That route, or that line, which shall reduce the voyage to Europe to the shortest period of time, will be the most successful.

OCEAN STEAMERS TO RUN BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND EUROPE IN 1850.

Names.	Tonnage.	Length.	Breadth.	Cost.	Diameter of cylinder.	Length of stroke.	Diameter of paddles.	Capacity of engine in horse power.
COLLINS' LINE.					In	ft.		
Atlantic	3000	290	46	650,000	95	9	35	769
Pacific	3000	290	46	650,000	95	9	35	760
Baltic	3000					—		
Arctic	3000							
Adriatic	3000							
CUNARD'S LINE.								
Caledonia	1250							500
Hibernia	1400							550
Cambria	1400							550
America	1800	275	40					700
Canada	1800	275	40					700
Niagara	1800	275	40					700
Europa	1800	275	40		90	8	32	700
Asia	2250	300	42		16	9	36	800
Africa	2250	300	42		96	6	36	800
HAVRE LINE.								
Franklin	2500	260	42	350,000	94	8	34	
Havre	2500			450,000				
BREMEN LINE.								
Washington	1750	230	39		72	10	35	
Hermann	1850	235	40		72	10	35	
GLASGOW LINE.								
Glasgow city	1600							350
GALWAY LINE.								
Viceroy								

11.—BRITISH AND AMERICAN STEAM SHIPS.

We published a few months ago in our pages an article upon the progress of American steam navigation across the Atlantic, which showed very unfavorably towards our countrymen in comparison with the English. We are glad now to have an opportunity of extracting from a paper in the New York Herald, many facts and statistics of a more satisfactory and gratifying character.

We have from the commencement felt a deep interest in the subject of ocean steam navigation, and have kept ourselves informed from time to time of the precise state of affairs connected with it. With the view, therefore, of placing our readers in possession of the exact state of this trial of skill and enterprise, we place before them the results up to this time—that is, the comparative speed of the steamship Atlantic, and the vessels of the Cunard line, in their passages to and from Liverpool.

According to the official register of the Cunard Company, the average length of passage of those vessels, was, in the year 1849:

	Days.	*Hours.*
From Halifax to Liverpool	9	21
The average length of passage from New York to Halifax, was.	2	14
	—	—
Average passage from New York to Liverpool of the Cunard steamships in 1849	12	11
The American steamship Atlantic on her first trip to Liverpool, and with a broken engine for five days and a half, made the passage in	13	8
	—	—
Difference in favor of the Cunard steamships under favorable circumstances, and against the Atlantic under the reverse	..	21

The actual time lost by the Atlantic was at least forty hours on her trip to Liverpool; and when we add to that her decrease of speed on account of her broken engine, it must be admitted that her outward trip was an extraordinary one.

Now, let us investigate the comparative homeward passages of the Atlantic and the Cunard steamships during the year 1849, and also the comparative passage of that vessel and those of the Cunard steamships which left Liverpool a short time before she did, and the one which left after her.

By the official records of the Cunard Company, it appears that during the year 1849 the average length of the passages of the steamships of that line, was—

	Days.	*Hrs.*	*Min.*
From Liverpool to Halifax	11	3	0
From Halifax to New-York	2	7	0
Average passage from Liverpool to New-York	13	10	0
Passage of the Atlantic from Liverpool to New-York, with a head wind and sea all the time, and a gale a good portion of it	11	4	15
Difference in favor of the Atlantic over the average passage of the Cunards in 1849	2	5	45

Now for the trip of the two Cunard steamships, which left Liverpool a short time before she did and the one that left that port after her :—

	Days.	*Hrs.*	*Min.*
The steamship America left Liverpool on the 25th of May, and arrived at New-York on the 6th of June at 6½ o'clock A.M., thus making the trip in	11	20	30
The Atlantic left Liverpool on the 29th of April, and made the passage in	11	4	15
Difference in favor of the Atlantic	..	16	15
The Asia left Liverpool on May 18th, at 1 P.M., and arrived at Boston May 28th, at 1 30 P.M., thus making the trip to the latter port in	10	0	30
Difference between Boston and New-York	..	21	0
Time that would have been occupied by the Asia if she had come to New-York instead of to Boston	10	21	30
Difference in favor of the Asia	..	6	45

In comparing the passages of the Asia and the Atlantic, it must be borne in mind, that from the time when the latter left Liverpool, until she arrived at New-York, she experienced, with the exception of eight hours, a succession of head winds, which increased at times to gales, and had to encounter an extraordinary rough head sea, which retarded her progress, at the lowest calculation, twenty-four hours ; whereas, on the contrary, the Asia had fair winds almost all of the way, and used her sails. The result, then, is this :—

	Days.	*Hrs.*	*Min.*
Passage of the Asia with fair winds almost all of the distance, and using sails	10	21	30
Passage of the Atlantic, with head winds and gales and seas, all of the distance, with the exception of eight hours	11	4	15
Difference in favor of the Asia under these circumstances	..	6	45

Let us take the Canada, the Cunard steamship, which left Liverpool after the Atlantic, and arrived at Boston on Wednesday :—

	Days.	*Hrs.*	*Min.*
She made the trip in	11	6	0
The Atlantic made it in	11	4	15
In favor of the Atlantic from port to port	..	1	45
Add difference in distance	..	21	0
Total difference in favor of the Atlantic	..	22	45

To sum up all, therefore, and to come to the point, we have established by the above figures, which are taken from official records, three points in the result, viz.:—

That the steamship Atlantic, with a broken engine, and against head seas, made the outward trip to Liverpool within twenty hours of the average passages of the Cunard steamships during the year 1849, which certainly was doing better than could have been reasonably expected under the circumstances.

That the Atlantic made more than an average passage of the Cunard steamships in 1849, on her trip from Liverpool to New-York, *the difference in her favor being two days and six hours.*

That she beat the steamship America, which left Liverpool four days before her, sixteen hours.

That she beat the Canada, which left Liverpool three days after her, twenty-two hours and forty-five minutes.

That the Atlantic, with heavy head seas, head winds and gales all the passage, with the exception of eight hours, was beaten by the Asia—which experienced favorable winds almost all of the way, and used her sails almost all the passage—only fourteen hours.

In whatever way we view this subject, Mr. E. K. Collins, the enterprising originator of this splendid new line of American steamships, the stockholders and the public of the United States, have every reason to rejoice at the result, thus far, of their performances. With such a commencement, under such unfavorable circumstances, what may we not reasonably expect of those steamships hereafter? Let it be borne in mind, too, that the Canada and America, whose passages we have compared with that of the Atlantic, are the fastest of the Cunard line, and are the two vessels which made the shortest passages from Liverpool to Halifax, from Liverpool to Boston, and from Liverpool to New-York, in the year 1849, as well as from Boston to Liverpool, and New-York to Liverpool, according to the official statement, as published by the Cunard Company, through their agent at Halifax.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

PROGRESS OF SOUTHERN RAILROADS.

We are indebted to the Rail-road Journal, edited by Henry V. Poor, Esq., whose personal acquaintance we had the pleasure of forming last summer in New-York, for much of the following interesting matter, relating to Southern Rail-road enterprise. His paper is deserving of a very wide circulation, and we are glad to learn is obtaining it.

1.—MOBILE AND OHIO AND ILLINOIS CENTRAL RAIL-ROAD.

We are gratified to see that this bill, granting lands in aid of these important roads, has passed Congress and become a law. It grants alternate sections of land for the whole length of the two roads, (which is not far from 1,000 miles,) provided they can be found within 15 miles of the line of the road.

This bill secures the early construction of a rail-road from Lake Michigan to the Gulf of Mexico, in an almost straight line. It opens to the great lakes the shortest possible communication with the gulf, and brings the products of the tropics and of high northern latitudes within close proximity. Its line is identical with that of the direction of trade, and must ever constitute one of its great channels between the extremes of the Union.

Without this grant these roads could not have been built for many years. With it their early construction is certain. They will traverse sections of the country far removed from navigable waters, which, for the want of suitable means of transportation, have attracted but little attention, and which are but thinly peopled, though of great fertility. These roads will put a new face upon the condition of things at the south, and impart to that section the stimulant which the steam engine always administers to a people among whom it i troduced. They will give a new importance to Mobile as a seaport, and make it one of the leading commercial towns of the south. The country will reap a much greater benefit from these roads, than the value of the grant which has secured their construction. This great line of railroad will give to Cairo the importance of position, which has been claimed for it by those who have been endeavoring to build up a city at the confluence of the Ohio and Mississippi. It will make it the entrepot of trade for Southern Illinois, and the shipping port in the winter for the produce of that great State.—It will be the point where the travel will leave the Mississippi for the land route north. From the junction of the Ohio, the Mississippi is always navigable for the largest class boats. For a greater part of the year Cairo can be reached by railroad much cheaper than by steamboat. Below that point the river will always offer the cheapest carriage. This will constitute that place the shipping point of an immense amount of produce. Its proximity to the coal fields of Illinois is another fact in its favor. As we said before, the completion of the above roads is all that is wanted to make it what its friends claim it is capable of becoming, the commercial capital of Illinois.

2.—ALABAMA AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

A large convention of the stockholders in this road was held at Shelby Springs on the 13th ult., for the purpose of considering the steps to be taken in relation to the commencement and prosecution of this work.

By the report of the committee in the business of the convention, it appears that the subscriptions to the capital stock of the company are as follows:

Mobile	$200,000
Selma	231,000
Shelby, Bibb and Perry	116,000
Talladega	185,000
Benton	117,000
Cherokee and DeKalb	74,000
	$923,000

To which should be added the appropriation of the legislature, variously estimated at from $260,000 to $300,000. By the act of the legislature this appropriation was divided into three parts, pro rata, according to the distance, viz: from Selma to the Coosa river in Shelby county, from the Coosa river to Gadsden, and from Gadsden to Gunter's Landing. This division would give from $206,965 to $238,806 of the appropriation to be applied to the two divisions from Selma to Gadsden, making the total present means of the company to build the road from Selma to Gadsden equal to from $1,129,965 to $1,161,806. In this estimate of the means of the company, the value of the grading already done, is not included; this is estimated at $60,000.

By the report of the chief engineer it appears, that the total cost of the road on one of the routes surveyed complete for the reception of its furniture and motive power, is as follows:

From Selma to Montevallo	$681,111
From Selma to Coosa river, in Shelby county	1,129,782
From Selma to Talladega	1,519,874
" Gadsden	2,198,696

The following table shows the proportion, in this estimate of the cost of the road, between the grading or work, which may be executed by the common labor of the country, and the iron, engineering, and mechanical labor:

	Grading or work which may be executed by the common labor of the country.	Iron, engineering, and mechanical labor.
Selma to Montevallo	$153,344	$527,770
Selma to Coosa river, in Shelby county	286,448	843,333
Selma to Talladega	377,832	1,142,042
" Gadsden	598,936	1,599,760

It is evident from an inspection of this table, that with the present means of the company it is practicable to grade the road to Gadsden, and to build it to Montevallo, without incurring liabilities.

The subscriptions which have been made may be divided into two classes—1st, those which will be paid for in cash, and 2d, those which will be paid for in labor.

The first class is estimated to comprise the—

Mobile subscription	$200,000
Selma "	200,000
Shelby, Bibb and Perry	76,000
Talladega "	100,000
Benton "	65,000
Cherokee and DeKalb	40,000
	$681,000
Appropriation	238,806
Total probable cash means	$919,806

The second class, or subscriptions payable in labor, may be estimated for—

Selma	$31,000
Shelby, Bibb and Perry	40,000
Talladega	85,000
Benton	52,000
Cherokee	34,000
Total probable subscription payable in labor	$242,000

According to this division it would require—

1st. But an addition of $280,463 to the labor subscription to grade the road to Gadsden, and to build it to the Coosa river.

2d. An addition of $222,236 to the cash subscription, and of $355,936 to the labor subscription, would be required to grade the road to Gadsden and to construct it to Talladega.

3d. An addition of $356,936 to the labor subscription, and of $679,954 to the cash subscription, would be needed to build the road from Selma to Gadsden.

In view of the favorable character of the country for the construction of a cheap and effective railroad, and of the certainty that, when completed, your enterprise will yield a handsome dividend on its cost; the committee believe that, as soon as the road is commenced and proof is given that it will be vigorously prosecuted, renewed and increased confidence will be established, and the subscriptions will be largely augmented.

In addition to the means above provided, a bill has already passed the Senate of the United States, of a similar character to those in favor of other roads, aiding this work by a grant of the public lands. Should this bill become a law, it will largely add to the means of this company.

The committee advise that the road should be placed under contract at once, and express a belief that it can be completed in three years.

In relation to furnishing this road with Alabama rails, the committee say:

The question of the propriety of furnishing this road with Alabama iron has been referred to the committee. The committee consider it a matter of very great importance to the company, that this subject should be thoroughly investigated, and, if practicable, that arrangements should be made to procure Alabama iron rails. The supplies of excellent iron ore and coal, on and near the route of the road, are great; unrivalled facilities for the cheap manufacture of iron also exist, and the committee do not conceive why, with these great advantages, the whole road, or a large portion of the road, should not be laid with Alabama rails. The committee will not enter into a discussion of the merits of this question, but would suggest that the directors could not adopt a policy which would be more conducive to the interests of the company and of the country traversed by the road, than to make, if practicable and consistent with the interests of the company, such arrangements as will cause the iron to be manufactured among ourselves.

Whether the rails shall be made of Alabama iron or not, this project we see has already turned the attention of the people of that State toward their great mineral resources, and will have the effect to bring into use what, to a great extent, would have remained dormant, but for such a work.

The road is to be one of the first class, as far as construction is concerned. Of the ability of the people interested in it to build it in three years, we have not a doubt. They can now commence work with a very respectable amount of means secured, a much larger proportion of the cost than most works of a similar character in the west can show. Certainly no difficulty will be met in obtaining the additional amount wanted as the work progresses.

3.—BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

The revenue for the month of August, on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, has been as follows :

	Passengers.	Freight.
Main Stem	$31,773 82	$73,550 29
Washington Branch	23,256 86	3,674 61
	$55,030 68	$77,224 90

Making an aggregate of $105,324 11 on the Main Stem, and $26,931 47 on the Washington Branch—the total being $132,225 58.

The above shows an increase over the corresponding month of last year of $12,705 59, being $5,665 61 on the Main Stem, and $7,042 78 on the Washington Branch.

4.—PACIFIC R. R., MISSOURI.

At a recent election in St. Louis county, the proposition to subscribe $100,000 on behalf of the county, to the Pacific Railroad, was submitted to the vote of the people, and *carried*, by yeas 4,248, against nays 467.

5.—NASHVILLE AND CHATTANOOGA RAILROAD, TENN.

Col. V. K. Stevenson, the intelligent and go-ahead President of the above road, has been in this place for the last ten or fifteen days, waiting to see the operations on this end of the road fairly under way. We have heretofore mentioned that the Irish laborers had arrived, and they are now only waiting for the tools, which had been heard from early in the week, and were expected daily. The work from this place to the Tennessee River is very heavy, and Col. Stevenson very properly deems it essential that he should watch over it with vigilance. From the character of the contractors, we have reason to believe that the work will be pressed forward to an early completion.—*Chattanooga Gazette.*

6.—WILMINGTON AND RALEIGH RAILROAD, N. C.

It is with great pleasure we lay before our readers the following statement of the progress and prospects of our Road in well-doing. Should the present business continue, and we see no reason to doubt it, the stock of the Company will be looking up, and those who have continued to hold it will reap the fruits of their confidence in its ultimate value, which will still more greatly improve when the Wilmington and Manchester Road is finished :

Comparative statement of Receipts on the Wilmington and Raleigh Railroad for the year ending October, 1849 *and* 1850, *for* 10 *months.*

	Months	Amount receipts.		Months.	Amount receipts.	Difference, gain.
1848.	October	21,259 26	1849.	October	25,162 14	4,302 88
	November	16,743 10		November	21,562 54	4,819 44
	December	38,222 60		December	41,446 34	3,223 74
1849.	January	17,271 78	1850.	January	24,396 63	7,124 85
	February	19,138 76		February	31,771 94	12,641 18
	March	42,874 66		March	49,189 79	6,315 13
	April	21,622 67		April	26,017 27	4,354 60
	May	19,454 88		May	24,228 96	4,774 08
	June	35,172 90		June	46,109 34	10,936 40
	July	161,38 39		July	31,737 14	15,347 85
		$248,181 94			$322,222 09	$74,040 15

Showing a gain in 10 months of $74,040 15, over the corresponding months of last year.

7.—NORTH CAROLINA, CENTRAL RAILROAD,

"Is to commence on New River, near Waynesboro', in Wayne county, where the Wilmington Railroad crosses it. Thence, via Raleigh, keeping near Greensboro', through Lexington to Charlotte, in Mecklenburg county, a distance of about 220 miles." The capital stock of the Company is $3,000,000; one-third being subscribed by individuals, and the balance by the State. At Charlotte the road will connect with the Charlotte and South Carolina Railroad, which is to connect with the South Carolina Railroad at Columbia, and will soon be completed. On the north it will probably be connected with the Richmond and Danville Railroad, and form a part of a very direct line between the north and south. We understand that the above road will be ready for contract about the first of January next.

8.—WILMINGTON AND MANCHESTER RAILROAD, N. C.

For the purpose of showing the present condition of this road, we copy the following extract from a letter of Gen. Harllee, President of the above road, to a gentleman at Cheraw, S. C., which latter place it is proposed to connect with the above road by a branch.

Marion, C. H., August 23, 1850.

James Powell, Esq.,

Dear Sir: As all contingency is now fairly at an end, as to the construction of our railroad to the Great Pee Dee, I would suggest that you would consult with the Commissioners at Cheraw, as to the propriety of moving in opening the books for the stock of the company to connect a road with your place.

We have under contract, with a few trifling exceptions, all the road from the Pee Dee to Manchester, including grading, timber, truss work, etc., and will commence laying the iron in January next at the western end. We have purchased 3000 tons, as you are aware, for the first 40 miles, and are now engaged in negotiations for the remainder to reach Pee Dee river, which I think will be consummated in a few weeks, and hope to take the next crop from the Pee Dee country.

All of the grading in this State, east of the Pee Dee, is in progress, and a portion of the timber contracted for, and arrangements have been made to put the whole of the contracts not heretofore let for grading and timber in North Carolina, under way by 1st October next, and all that we require is the means to purchase iron, etc., for that portion lying between the Great Pee Dee and Wilmington. From this we have no apprehension; with two-thirds of our capital paid in and expended, we can have no difficulty in negotiating our bonds for the rest on fair terms, even if North Carolina does nothing; but it is confidently relied upon, that her next legislature will either subcribe or guarantee for the company from $200,000 to $300,000.

I have now an offer of iron for half cash and half credit, for ten years, for our bonds alone at a fair price.

There can, therefore, be no uncertainty as to the ultimate completion of our road, or as to its business; and the question is, is it of sufficient importance to your people, to make an investment to the amount required to secure a road from Cheraw to join it? I need not, I am sure, say anything to you on this point. My object is to point out the propriety of beginning at once, if you intend undertaking it. The times are now prosperous, and the road can be built by an appropriation of such a portion of the means of those interested as will effect them. Thus far, our contractors have paid up and gone on with the work, without any diminution of their usual crops; and although $100.000 worth of work or more has been completed, the loss of labor from other pursuits has not been felt, nor will that which is yet to be bestowed upon the work.

9.—VIRGINIA AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

The Lynchburg Republican says that the tunnel near that place, which will form a part of the above named road, is rapidly progressing. The work has reached 95 feet upon the north, and 55 feet upon the southwest side, making a distance already accomplished of 150 feet. Two sets of hands are employed, which regularly relieve each other, night and day, thus enabling the tunnelling to be carried on without intermission. The whole length of the tunnel will be about 450 feet, and will require until the middle of October to complete it. Along the entire line of improvement to Salem, the progress is most encouraging to the friends of the road.

10.—ORANGE AND ALEXANDRIA RAILROAD, VIRGINIA.

We learn that the board of directors of this railroad company at their recent meeting adopted the location of the road through Prince William and Fauquier counties, on what is called the *upper line*.

This line passes about two miles and three quarters to the right of Brentsville, and within seven-eighths of a mile of Milford.

We learn also that the location of the road is now completed from Alexandria to Gordonsville, and that the total distance is rather less than 89 miles.

The board have directed the energetic prosecution of the graduation from Bull Run to Culpepper Court House, which has hitherto been kept back until the question of routes was decided.

We wish we were able to make a similar announcement for the Western section, and take the liberty to urge upon the friends of the work there, the propriety of forwarding an enterprise so important to their interests. A strong effort now might effect its commencement this fall, and certainly secure its completion in the year 1852.

There was a meeting of the stockholders of this company, held in this place, at the Lyceum Hall, B. E. Harrison in the chair, and J. H. Reid, Secretary. The meeting was called for the special purpose of considering the application for the branch of the road to Warrenton. The decision of the stockholders, we understand, was *adverse* to the application.

11.—GREENVILLE AND COLUMBIA RAILROAD, SOUTH-CAROLINA.

We have received the third annual report of the proceedings of the stockholders of this company, at a meeting held at Newbury on the 10th of July last. The line of this road extends from Columbia via Newbury, and Anderson to Greenville, and including a branch to Abbeville, is 164½ miles long. The whole cost of the road and equipment is estimated at $1,384,876 74. The whole amount of means provided for its construction is $1,178,000, leaving only about $200,000 yet to be obtained. The iron for nearly the whole road has been secured; in part by a contract with the South-Carolina Railroad for iron formerly used by that company, sufficient to lay 100 miles, and by purchase in England for 54 miles. It is expected that the portion of the line extending from Columbia to Newbury will be completed by the first of November next. Twenty-four miles, from Columbia to the crossing of Broad river, are already in operation, and contracts for grading the whole line have been made. This part of the road will be completed probably before the superstructure can be had on the ground, as a large part of it will have to be transported for a long distance for some portions of the line. All the usual necessary steps, such as providing suitable depot grounds, etc., for the use of the road, have been taken, and the company are now actively and unitedly engaged in the vigorous prosecution of this great work, with sufficient means for its early completion.

The completion of this work will carry railroad accommodations to the extreme parts of the state. Companies have been organized for the purpose of constructing branches from Laurens, and from Spartansburg and Union, to connect with the above near Newbury. The completion of these lines, with other projects in progress in other parts of the state, will give to South-Carolina advantages of transportation scarcely excelled by any state in the Union, certainly by no southern state. Every part of her wide and fertile territory will have easy access to a market at all times, and all her means of wealth will at once be brought into notice and use. Those engaged in the construction of her public works fully appreciate their importance in increasing the value of property, and improving the condition of the whole community, and they enjoy a double reward of their labors, in the consciousness of conferring a substantial advantage upon their neighbors as well as themselves. Where a railroad is regarded in the light of a public benefit, those entrusted with it are sure to labor with a zeal and disinterestedness which we never witness in a project which has in view private ends alone. The spirit manifested by the directors of this road is a good illustration of this truth. The officers of the company for the present year, are Hon. John B. O'Neall, President; William Patton, Daniel Blake, J. S. Preston, D. Nance, S. Fair, F. G. Thomas, T. C. Perrin, Joel Smith, J. N. Whitner, J. P. Reid, V. McBee, Josiah Kilgore, Directors; W. Spencer Brown, Chief Engineer.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1.—PROGRESSIVE MANUFACTURE OF COARSE COTTONS.

In the South, though the amount of machinery is still small, the increase has been very rapid during the last four years.

	Factories.	Spindles.	Capital.	Bales Cotton used.
South Carolina has	16	36,500	$1,000,000	15,000
Georgia	36	51,140	1,206,000	27,000
Alabama	10	12,580	500,000	5,500
Tennessee	30	36,000	1,000,000	12,000
Total	92	136,220	$3,706,000	59,500

In the Western States the increase has not been less rapid. Along the valley of the Ohio there are mills at Pittsburg, Wheeling, Zanesville, Steubenville, Cincinnati and Cannelton. These, together with others in that valley, contain 89,000 spindles, 56,000 of which are upon heavy sheetings, and the remainder, chiefly making No. 14 yarn, and they consume 22,000 bales of cotton—making, with the Southern mills, a consumption of 81,500 bales, or nearly one-ninth of the whole consumption of this country; though the amount of capital invested is not at all in the same proportion. But the deficiency of capital does not affect their production of goods, as long as they are in operation.

Pennsylvania and Maryland contain several large new mills, making the same fabrics. But coming farther north, we find the increase of machinery upon a larger scale. The average size of our new mills is nearly double that of the old ones, and they have been erected and put in operation with wonderful celerity. Since the last depression, in 1843–4, the following increase has taken place in this vicinity:

	Spindles.
Atlantic Co., at Lawrence	25,900
Amoskeag Co., Manchester	20,000
Hadley Falls	20,000
Laconia Co., Biddeford	15,000
At Lowell	28,000
At Nashua	12,800
Pepperell Co., Biddeford	30,000
Salamon Falls	30,000
Stark Co., Manchester	22,000
West Springfield	16,000
Total	218,700

These mills are chiefly owned in Boston, excepting the last named, and are all producing, or will soon be ready to produce, the heavy sheetings and drillings with which our markets are overloaded. The erection of smaller mills is not alluded to; they have sprung up over all New-England, as well as in the other States. Neither do we include any of the mills making finer fabrics.

2.—SOUTHERN MANUFACTURING COMPETITION.

The New-York Herald, which has done the South much good service in a variety of ways, thus speaks of our capacities in manufactures :

The down east newspapers, particularly the Boston Daily Advertiser, are much engaged on the subject of southern cotton mills and manufactures. The object appears to be, in some cases, to show that the south cannot compete with the north in this business, notwithstanding some important advantages which the former possesses over the latter. They acknowledge that cotton costs the manufacturer of the south one cent per pound less than the manufacturer of New England has to pay for it. Taking even this statement to be correct, what would be the result ? The mills of the Massachusetts Company, at Lowell, consume six million eight hundred thousand pounds of cotton per annum. One cent per pound saved, on that quantity, would amount to sixty-eight thousand dollars ; and, as these mills contain forty-five thousand seven hundred spindles, the annual saving to a mill of eleven thousand would be about seventeen thousand dollars, no mean item to deduct from the bill of cost for one year. The capital stock of the above company is set down at one million eight hundred thousand dollars ; and the above assumed difference is equal to about three and three quarters per centum per annum on that enormous capital. But one cent per pound is not the real difference. The entire addition to cotton, in *transitu* from the cotton field to Lowell, will average two cents per pound ; and its cost at Lowell is one and an half cents higher at the latter place than is paid to the planter at the southern shipping port. This difference will amount to one hundred and two thousand dollars on the quantity consumed per annum by the above mills, or about five and a half per centum on the entire capital. This is the real advantage which the southern manufacturer possesses in the cost of cotton ; and which, for a mill of eleven thousand spindles, would be about twenty-five thousand dollars per annum.

In the second place, the cost of water power at Lowell, for forty-five thousand spindles, is two hundred and twenty-eight thousand six hundred dollars, at five dollars per spindle, the present rate. The interest on this sum is thirteen thousand seven hundred and sixteen dollars per annum. Besides these items, those mills, according to their official published statistics, consumed fuel, which costs, delivered on the spot, over seventeen thousand dollars per annum. Put all these items together, and we have the aggregate of one hundred and thirty-two thousand dollars difference in the cost of cotton, interest on the cost of water power, and the cost of fuel—or seven and a third per centum on the entire capital of one million eight hundred thousand dollars. Let us now turn to the other side.

Manufacturing sites are abundant at the south, in the midst of, and at short distances from, the cotton fields. At all of them are large quantities of fuel, at extremely low prices, and many of them are directly at, and in close proximity to immense deposits of the best of mineral coal. This coal can be had at the mills, at the low cost of sixty cents per ton, and at other places the best of wood can be procured at rates equally low. Allowing then, twenty tons of coal per day—a very large allowance—to drive the forty-five thousand spindles in the mills alluded to, and for all other purposes, and we have six thousand tons per annum, the cost of which, at sixty cents per ton, is three thousand six hundred dollars. Steam engines for the purpose, would cost sixty thousand dollars, the interest on which sum would be thirty-six hundred dollars. Engineers, firemen and oil, would cost ten dollars per day, or three thousand dollars per annum. These several items of cost of steam power, warming the mill, and the like, make up the gross amount of ten thousand and eight hundred and fifty dollars per annum, to drive the forty-five thousand spindles. Deduct this amount from one hundred and thirty-two thousand dollars, the aggregate of the cost of water power, fuel, and difference in the cost of cotton, and you leave one hundred and twenty-one thousand eight hundred and fifty dollars per annum, as the actual advantage which the mills of the Massachusetts Company would possess, if situated near the southern cotton field, compared with their present location. No one can, of course, doubt, all other things being equal, that that gives to the south a tremendous advantage over the north. The down east writers, however, undertake to point out disadvantages to offset this, and more too. The first of the number is a supposed deficiency of capital.

3.—OUR DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES.

The United States Journal says that the value of domestic cotton manufactures, including white, printed and colored goods, exported from the United States, in each of the past twenty-two years, was as follows:

1828	$1,010,232	1839	$2,975,032
1829	1,250,457	1840	3,549,607
1830	1,218,183	1841	3,122,546
1831	1,126,313	1842	1,770,090
1832	1,229,574	1843	3,233,550
1833	2,532,517	1844	2,898,780
1834	2,084,994	1845	4,327,923
1835	2,858,682	1846	3,545,481
1836	2,255,739	1847	4,082,522
1837	2,834,475	1848	5,718,209
1838	3,758,755	1849	4,421,091

4.—WOOL AND WOOLLEN FACTORY IN TEXAS.

We know, notwithstanding, that around San Antonio and Corpus Christi, on the Colorado river and other streams, the business of raising wool for a market has been undertaken by men of capital, experience and enterprise. The best Northern and Western breeds have furnished wherewith to improve the cheap common Mexican stock.

When the Government shall have done its duty, and, by the employment of the proper kind of troops, driven the Indians out of the country, the farmers may count on a continuance of something like peace and security—the first requisites for success in agricultural pursuits.

We have been led into this train of remarks by meeting an announcement in a late San Antonio paper, of a new and extensive woollen factory soon to be established within two or three miles of that city, on a branch of the San Antonio river. Woollen fabrics of a substantial character are to be manufactured: jeans, kerseys, blankets, satinets, &c. A substantial stone building has been erected for the purpose; the machinery has arrived, and consists of one Pekin and two carding machines of ninety spindles each, with three power-looms. The factory will be in operation in January or February. The persons at the head of the enterprise are Messrs. Harper & Martin, of San Antonio, one of whom is stated to be an old hand at the business. It is the first establishment of the kind west of the Colorado, and will give a powerful impetus to the wool growing business and the prosperity of Western Texas. The San Antonio river is surpassed by none of its size in its water-power for mills and factories. The wheat raising and wool growing capabilities of the country surrounding it, will doubtless soon lead to numerous trials of its velocity and volume of water for factory purposes.

MISCELLANIES.

1—THE RESOURCES OF MISSISSIPPI.

A paper on the other side of the ocean has been discussing the affairs of Mississippi with rather a free hand, but as the writer does great justice to the resources and wealth of our sister state, we will extract some part of his remarks. We regret the elaborate paper we promised upon the state is not yet ready.

"The territory included in the state of Mississippi enjoys a pre-eminence even among the most favored of the communities which recognise the federal government of Washington. It takes its name from the great river which drains into the Mexican gulf the superfluous waters of the whole middle region of the North American continent; and for two hundred and sixty-five miles along the lower and the richest line of that river, Mississippi occupies its western bank. It is daily enriched, without any exertion of its own; for every circumstance and every accident which contributes to swell the population who dwell on the higher branches of the Mississippi, the Missouri, and the Ohio rivers, increases the traffic on the low waters of that mighty confluence of streams. The state of Mississippi is the Holland of the central regions of North America. She is placed on the delta of the chief lines of water communication, through which alone the larger part of the external commerce of those regions can find a passage, and by which the greater portion of their imported commodities must be conveyed. The Dutch have become rich and illustrious, notwithstanding that their country is little more than a sand bank, and a mere speck on the map of Europe. But Mississippi occupies a surface equal to the whole of England and Wales. In point of fact, she is one of the largest states of the Union; and the natural resources of her soil have excited the admiration and amazement of every person who has examined them. These are the general outlines of the picture; and, when we turn our attention to the details, we arrive at equally striking results. Betwen 1830 and 1840, the population of Mississippi very much more than doubled itself; and when the census of the present year shall be completed, we entertain no doubt that, in point of numbers, the citizens of that state will be found to occupy a position so favorable, as to be in some degree disproportionate to their general standing in the federal commonwealth. Between the years 1840 and 1846, the revenue derived from the sale of her public lands increased nearly seven fold; and it must be borne in mind that, among the new western states, the rapidity with which the public domain is absorbed by fresh settlers, is one of the strongest proofs of substantial progress. Notwithstanding, however, this great increase in the demand for land, the state has still on hand, on the 30th of June, 1845, no less than 10,409,034 acres of surveyed and registered lands, awaiting the appearances of purchases. And if we estimate the value of these at no more than the very moderate price of two and a half dollars per acre, (the rate assumed by the commissioners of the state,) it will appear that Mississippi possesses, in her unappropriated public domain alone, a fund equal to five and a half millions of pounds sterling, or more than five times the principal, and more than a hundred times the interest, of the debt. But further, we have at this moment before us a copy of the official budget of Mississippi for the years 1846, '47 and '48; and what are the prominent facts which these documents disclose? Not, certainly, that the people of Mississippi are poor and helpless. In 1846, the number of taxable acres in the state was 15,232,389; and in 1848 the area of assessment has expanded to 16,019,488 acres; that is to say, in two years it has increased five per cent. The whole amount of public taxes annually collected within the state was under $380,000 or £76,000; and the burthen of these was limited to an infinitesimal assessment, on most of the principal kinds of real and personal property. We find, for example, entries of the amount of duty levied on pleasure wagons, race, saddle, and harness horses, gold and silver plate, pianos, pistols, bowie knives, 'slaves under 60 years,' and 'free male negroes.'

2.—RESOURCES AND WEALTH OF TEXAS.

We are always most happy to receive information in reference to the progress of our sister state, which is yet destined to be one of the most important in the Union, and have, from time to time, published everything that we could lay our hand upon, at all reliable, on the subject. Her citizens will greatly oblige us by any communications they can make, as a great anxiety for information from that quarter is very general in the country.

THE BRAZOS COUNTRY.

I have recently visited that portion of Texas above Huntsville, between the Brazos and the Trinity rivers, as far up as the Three Forks of the Trinity, which, until since annexation, has been the range of the Buffalo and the Indian. It is now being laid off into counties of 900 square miles, and is settling rapidly. In the upper counties, none of the settlements are more than three years old; yet most of them already have established churches and schools. Some of the schools are very promising.

The land above Walker county is, for the most part, open, gently undulating prairies, covered with rich grasses, undisturbed by man or beast, since the buffaloes have left, which was since the commencement of the settlements. Springfield and Tyworrana (no two persons spell this name alike,) in Livingston county, are good places to select as residences. The last presents one of the most lovely and extensive prospects I have ever seen in this state, or, indeed, in any other. The soil is of the first quality, and the water abundant, pure, and good. There is also an abundance of excellent building stone and cedar timber near at hand for fences. It is destined to become a place of importance, as a healthful and delightful place of residence, combining, with the extensive cattle range, advantages to the emigrant greatly to be desired. As I proceeded northward, I found the same excellent quality of land, with a convenient amount of timber, throughout Navarro co. to Pyrter's Bluff, on the Trinity. In some parts of this county the water was bad, and scarce. The health of the people suffered in consequence. From about 15 miles north of Porter's Bluff, in Ellis and Dallas counties, although the soil appeared much the same as in the counties below, there is a sub-stratum of a white, soft clayey rock, which is easily cut with a saw, and which can hardly be made available for building purposes if exposed to the weather, but which may be made to stand by giving it a coat of plaster. Wherever this rock is found was also found an abundance of springs, and water may also be obtained by digging a few feet, say from 12 to 20. I traced this rock from Dallas to this place, a distance of 175 miles. The whole country has much the same features; a gently undulating open prairie, soil generally rich, and with but little land of no account, greatly deficient in timber, except along the Trinity and Brazos rivers. Everywhere presenting prospects of great beauty, and a healthful climate; where, besides having an unbounded range for stock, wheat, rye, barley, oats and corn can be raised with little labor, and the whole of this vast region the best of upland cotton.

The planters in the South and West who are not well situated where they now are, cannot fail of being suited here, except they wish to grow sugar cane. Many might come also from the North, especially mechanics, and do well, if they can be conservative enough to mind only their own business. One thing I had well nigh forgotten to say, is this, that this country literally abounds with "milk and honey." Honey is raised without scarce an effort, and of the best quality. It is no fiction that, during the late dry weather, the honey dew has laid so thick upon the grass as to stick upon your clothes when you walked through it, often killing the grass, and in some instances so smearing the wings and feathers of the prairie hens, that they have been caught by hand. This last fact I have learned from others, not from my own observations. The grass killed by this dew I see daily. So the bees fill their hives almost without effort, at least that is the case this season.

After crossing the Brazos at Waso Village and proceeding to the head waters of Little river, a change comes over the face of the country on your right; on the left to Austin, is the same beautiful prairie country; but near at hand, on the right, the country becomes rocky and wooded—on the San Leon, Lampases, and Salado—and between these beautiful streams, which, by-the-by, are clear as crystal and abound with fine fish, easily caught. These streams are formed from large springs, and afford numerous excellent mill sites not subject to irregularity and overflows. On the white, soft clay rocks, of which I have spoken above, lie other rocks; much of it limestone, but also presenting many specimens of flint, crystals of various kinds, and many minerals. I have seen indications of sulphur, iron, lead, copper, silver and some gold. It would be a rich region for a mineralogist to examine. The county seats of Bell and Williamston counties, Nolansville, and Georgetown, are in the midst of this region. At either of these places a few good mechanics would do well to locate and grow up with the country. This whole line from Dallas to Austin, (200 miles,) is now frontier, with few or no settlements above. Locations are being made daily above, and will soon be occupied.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

THE COTTON INTERESTS, AND PROSPECTS FOR PLANTERS.

BY GEO. G. HENRY, OF MOBILE.

I submit herewith Cotton Tables for your examination, which I think present our interests in a very encouraging aspect. A very essential feature, is the introduction into them, "as consumed," of a large amount of cotton which has annually been disappearing, and which has not been entered in any of the tables. They are divided into periods of five years, from 1840 to 1844, and from 1845 to 1849, each inclusive. To get at and show this insensible consumption, I add the whole consumption, as shown on the tables for the

last five years, say,		13,350,000
To stock reported 31st December, 1849, in Europe,		646,000
And stock reported 1st September, 1849, in U. States,		155,000
Making .... (Bales)		14,151,000
I then add the total annual production for the same years,	13,551,000	
To stock on hand 1st January, 1845,	1,261,000	
Which makes		14,812,000
And deducting the total supply above from the total consumption, the enormous deficit is shown of		661,000

Which, of course, has been consumed, and is a very important item. Pursuing the same mode of calculation for the first period, I found 48,000 bales had disappeared. These discrepancies I have distributed to each year as seemed its due proportion. I must here remark, with regard to the reported stock of cotton in Europe, 646,000 bales, as seen above, on 1st January last, that there are 90,000 bales included in that which ought not to have been, as compared with former systems of reports, in Liverpool. It should have been entered under consumption, as the stocks of the manufacturers were that much less than the year before, as stated in 1st January Circular of Messrs. Wilson, Hallett & Co., of Liverpool, and hence the stocks on hand in Europe should appear that much less, say, 546,000—and consumption that much more, say, add 90,000 to 3,241,000 bales, as per my tables, and we find the total consumption of 1849 to have been 3,331,000 bales.

CONSUMPTION OF COTTON.

You will also see clearly presented therein, that the annual consumption for the past five years has, in each, been greater than the production—a material fact which has been only supposed by many, but which I have shown to be beyond doubt. The consumption of 1842 was greater than the production—and that of 1844, very near on to the production—while the total production, for the past eight years, was not so large as the consumption.

You will also observe, that the increase of supply of cotton by our crops and the imports into Europe from India, Egypt, &c., for the five years ending with 1849, over the supply for the preceding period, is only seven and a half per cent., while upon the average consumption of the latter over the former period, inclusive of the 90,000 bales alluded to, there is 20 *per cent increase.*

We may here pause to contemplate the superlatively favorable position in which not only the American planter is placed, but in which the whole nation participates, through this important reality. We see that this consumption has thus increased during a period of multiplied disaster and embarrassment. The enormous losses and failures in Great Britain, of 1847—the revolution in France and failures there, and general anarchy in Europe, are all herein embraced—not to say anything of our affair with Mexico.

In consideration of these two highly important elements—supply and consumption—let us examine their averages in the tables; they are cunning things, and will come pretty near the truth. They show us emphatically that the tendency of consumption is to stride on ahead of production. We see were each to keep the pace the next five years with each other they have the past five, or the five preceding, that in 1854 the consumption would be 560,000 bales greater than the production. Consumption, therefore, must be arrested for the want of supply.

SUPPLY OF COTTON.

Well, what are the prospects of supply? A slight glance at the history of this article will serve to illustrate this inquiry. In 1825 cotton advanced to a very high price, which advance was based on the supposition of deficient supply. In that year, however, Egypt forwarded to Europe a larger quantity by many times than she had in any one year before, which really glutted the markets. The immense number and heavy failures that occurred in consequence, with other causes, kept the prices down until 1832–3, when they began to improve, and a more liberal range continued till 1830–40; since then they have been very low, unless for 1846-7, and 1849-50, when the crops were so short as to lessen thereby the general advantage the prices of those years might appear to have afforded. Within this period all the Indian titles to lands in Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, were extinguished, and those valuable lands were all put into market. The purchases of 1834-5 and '6 were prodigious, and the lands were rapidly settled up. The aggregate purchases since 1836* have been so small, as clearly to indicate that the remaining unsold lands are not very desirable, and thus we have presented a very formidable barrier to any rapid increase of crops in this country. The largely increased consumption of coffee, and its remunerating poospects, checks the production of Brazil and the West Indies. If with all the powerful appliances used to promote its culture by the old Egyptian Pacha, it did not increase, it is not likely to under his successor. The climate and its peculiarities are against it. From the East Indies, we have the authority of the best Southern planters who could be procured by the English East India Company to go there to teach the natives to rear it, that it is out of the question to do so profitably—the periodical rains and succeeding excessive drought totally forbidding it!†

The tables show a decrease of 20 per cent. on the last five years' supply from those countries, on that of the first five—which is an important criterion as to the probability of that supply. Having examined the impregnable position occupied by the cotton planter, as exhibited in the tables to 1849, I will now glance at the business of the year 1849-50, just closing.

The crop of the past year received into the ports, in 1849 and '50, will reach about 2,090,000, and has been sold for about $107,000,000. The crop of 1848 was 2,729,000 bales, and sold for about $77,000,000. The receipts at Mobile for 1848-9, were 519,000 bales, (inclusive of 9,000 bales shipped direct to New-Orleans,) sold for $16,510,000. The past crop was 351,000 bales, (inclusive of 17,500 shipped direct to New Orleans,) and sold for over $20,000,000. The prices have been tolerably regular, but it is evident, from the exhibit of the annexed tables, that they did not quite average all they should have, which was the result of over-estimates, and great management on the other side. The average at this port has been 11¾ cents per pound. The consumption in the United States has been large in proportion to the crop, about equalling last year's. The consumption in Great Britain continues large, no reports of stopping machinery or working short time. In France, order is entirely restored, and trade and commerce are galloping along merrily, Consumption will be likely to increase there largely, and it is most likely to do so on the Continent.

The reported deliveries at Liverpool are some 8 per cent. less than to the same time last year, but it is not likely they will consume less than that ratio; thus, under any view taken, the stocks 1st January, in Europe, must be reduced to an alarmingly small point. Trade everywhere is carried on upon an unusually substantial basis—it is everywhere active, stocks of goods moderate, and stocks of cotton everywhere nearly exhausted.

I will now take a view of the prospects of supply for the next business year, and of prices.

The crop of this country determines the question, and so important is it, that although I have felt it my duty for many years to anticipate its probable extent, I do so now more than ever, with a desire to be as cautious as I shall be candid. I have seen estimates already, low and high, 1,800,000 to 2,500,000. The whole season, from 1st March to 1st July, was unpropitious. A killing frost 27th March, with cold and wet. The stands were bad, the weed sickly—replanting continued in places till June. The bottom lands of the Mississippi waters inundated too late to plant on. The blooms appearing later than ever before known, about 28th June and 1st July—the whole season's working of cotton and corn thrown together. The rains of the latter part of June and early part of July, started the weed off to growing. A general drouth of five to six weeks followed. The worm is reported in some localities. Early cotton doing well, late nothing. Prospects on the richest lands better, proportionably, than on the sandy. Such is the general report of the condition of the crop,

Refer to the tables on the other side, and let us look to the two crop years of 1845 received into the ports in 1845-46, which was 2,101,000—and that of 1847, received in 1847-'48, which reached 2,348,000 bales. The seasons of both those years, and this, so far, are very nearly parallel, with this difference with regard to the latter year—you perceive the receipts at New-Orleans for 1847-8, were 1,191,000 bales. In that section they that year had no overflows, and the drought which ruined the Atlantic crop, and much injured the Alabama, was too late to hurt theirs, and they made the largest crop they ever have. But this year their crop is very poor to this time, and a careful observer in New-Orleans tells me, he seriously doubts if their receipts next season will exceed 800,000 bales. I believe no one puts it over 900,000. Then take 300,000 bales, the probable difference between the present and their crop of 1847, and it would reduce it below 2,100,000 a fraction. I have said above. I consider those years, with this exception, nearly alike. My estimate as per my Circular of

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* Appendix to Commissioner of General Land Office, Report to Congress, 1848, page 241

† See Patent Office Report, 1845, pages 757-8.

July [illegible], 1846, was..	2,000,000	bales—the	receipts	were		....	1,178,000
July [illegible] 1847,......	2,150,000	"	"	"	"	....	2,348,000
July [illegible] 1848,......	2,500,000	"	"	"	"	....	2,729,000
August [illegible]th, 1849,....	2,150,000	"	"	"	"	will be about	2,090,000

My estimate now is, in view of all the grounds, that with our usual favorable fall, the crop cannot exceed 2,200,000 bales. As was the case in 1848–9, there is now no old cotton held back in the country to swell next year's receipts—and as in 1847–8, the Mississippi country cannot disappoint us so largely. Of course, in submitting an estimate now, all who are concerned in this great staple know it must be received as a mere approximation from the complexion of all accounts to this time. I do not think, however, attended with most favorable circumstances, it could go 100,000 bales above my estimate; while, should the caterpillar, which is already reported in Texas, and which is the point where it has first made its appearance when it was destructive to us, should it spread its ravages as in 1846, the crop would not reach 1,800,000 bales. Late as this crop is, that scourge has time left to take the route, and if it does, may do more damage than in 1846.

With regard to the supply from other countries another year, I need only refer to what I have before said. With the aid of a high range of prices, it may be kept up to about 500,000 bales—and I now come to the prospect of prices.

Abundance of food and money, and general quiet, are the elements of prosperity. The prospect of the abundant supply of food everywhere, has scarcely ever been equalled. In Europe, the prospect of the harvest is fine, and for very low prices of food. The amount of bullion in the Bank of England is about £16,000,000, and the amount in the Bank of France is about the same, and the rate of interest is very low. The Bank of England discounts at 2½ per cent, but negotiations out of doors are made at 1½ per cent. per annum. Spain reposes from her long continued wars—Irish disturbances and distress are no more heard of, and the whole world is at peace, save the little kingdom of Denmark and one of her Duchies, which affair will surely ere long be compromised. The policy of nations is turned towards peace. Then considering that in no event can the supply of cotton equal the demand for the manufacturers from it, and that it is sustained by all the most powerful influences, I consider that the range of prices another year must be *high*. It may go above anything we have known for many years. In making this enunciation, I cannot forbear to call your attention to my remarks on the subject of prices in my Circular of 9th January, 1849:—"Bright skies are now decidedly before us, the diminished consumption of the past two years leaves all the markets bare of manufactures, and with the restoration of confidence in France, &c., will have a tendency to advance and sustain prices for the present season; and *I may now venture the opinion, that prices another year will be greater than they may reach this.* The era of low prices is, in my opinion, positively passed." At the date of that Circular, Middlings were quoted at 5⅝c.—they went on advancing last year till they touched 7, 8, 9, and 10c., and this year they have ranged at 10 to 12½c. The latter is the quotation to-day, with an advancing tendency.

THE PLANTER SHOULD PROMOTE HOME FACTORIES.

Gratified, as I sincerely am, that I feel warranted in placing before you so encouraging a picture of the future, compared with the present prices—as it has been a prominent object of my Circulars to keep before you the method by which we might attain this position, and by which we may also secure its progress and continuance, pardon a few remarks suggested by that desire. I have shown above, that the enormous receipts of cotton last business year, 1848–9, (2,729,000 bales,) sold for $77,000,000, and that the crop of this year, 1849–50, of about 2,070,000 to 2,090,000 bales, has sold for $107,000,000—that is a crop of 640,000 to 650,000 bales this, less than that of last year, has sold for $30,000,000 more. Now is the time rapidly to multiply your advantages. Cast around you energetically for new modes of investing your accumulated and accumulating capital. Invest in Cotton Factories, Iron Forges, Coal Mines, Railroads, timber getting, &c. Some may say that while cotton is high, manufacturing might not be so profitable. If Cotton Factories were fostered and multiplied in number elsewhere, while cotton was high, and with machinery so far in the rear of all the late improvements, you surely have no cause now [illegible]. If you are uncertain what styles of goods to manufacture, prepare to spin it [illegible]. The machinery does not cost much, and the operation is simple. 61,000,000 pounds [illegible] about 320,000 of your bales cotton—of *cotton yarns*, were imported last year [illegible] Britain, and all the yarns her manufacturers weave up, they purchase from [illegible] who are distinct operators from the weavers. Hence, were you to spin up [illegible] crop of Alabama into the required numbers, your demand here for it would be [illegible] for your cotton, at about *double* the price for a pound of the spun over the [illegible]

[illegible] allow me to recommend, that all these enterprises be entered into in the [illegible] Stock Companies, as there is, in this arrangement of capital, inestimable advantage. To this system of associating enterprise, labor and money, is to be ascribed the rapidly increasing wealth of England, Massachusetts, New-York, &c., and admits, you will perceive, of a multiplication almost indefinite. To illustrate:—with your bona fide capital and labor you start a factory. Ten stockholders have each $10,000 in it—in operation it pays then say about 16 per cent.—they desire to *build* another—they take their stocks to those rich old gentlemen who do not care to embark in those things, and ask to borrow their money on it—they gladly lend it at say 8 per cent.—well, the parties go on and build another, and each factory pays a dividend of 16 per cent., which, together, is 32 per cent.—take the 8 per cent. off they pay for the money borrowed, and it yet leaves 24 per cent. profit on the capital of $10.000 they each own. You may continue this operation, so that conveniently one man may hold $50,000 to $100,000 stock, with only a capital of $10,000 in the beginning—receiving dividends on each, double as large as the interest he has to pay. By this system of increasing manufactures, you afford employment to the unproducing part of our population, invite emigration, and doing all this, it besides attracts labor from cotton producing, thereby checking the supply and consequently augmenting its value. You will find the money at 7 to 8 per cent. interest, much faster and quicker than you can get your machinery manufactured and put up.

***TABLE** of Crops of Cotton of the United States, with the number of bales imported into Europe, from other Countries; also stocks, and Consumption of the United States and Europe, for ten years, ending with* 1849, *divided into two periods, with the Aggregate and Average of each five years, and the increase or decrease per cent. of one over the other.*

	1840	**1841**	**1842**	**1843**	**1844**	Aggregate.	Average.
Crop of Atlantic Ports—							
Savannah	293,000	146,000	222,000	299,000	253,000	1,213,000	243,000
Charleston	312,000	233,000	261,000	352,000	306,000	1,464,000	293,000
Virginia.	24,000	24,000	20,000	12,000	14,000	94,000	19,000
North Carolina........	10,000	7,000	10,000	9,000	9,000	45,000	9,000
Atlantic ports.........	639,000	410,000	513.000	672,000	582,000	2,808,000	564,000
Crop of Gulf Ports—							
New-Orleans.........	954,000	817,000	737,000	1,060,000	832,000	4,400,000	880,000
Mobile................	445,000	318,000	318,000	483,000	469,000	2,033,000	407,000
Florida	136,000	90,000	108,000	161,000	146,000	641,000	128,000
Texas and other ports.	4,000	....	8,000	4,000	1,000	17,000	3,000
Gulf ports............	1,539,000	1 225,000	1,171,000	1,708,000	1,448,000	7,091,000	1,418,000
Atlantic ports.........	639,000	410,000	513,000	672,000	582,000	2,816,000	564,000
Total crop U. States...	2,178,000	1,635,000	1,684,000	2,380,000	2,030,000	9.907.000	1,982,000
***Crop** of India, Egypt, Brazil, &c., Imp. into Europe*	473.000	569,000	545,000	523,000	511,000	2,621,000	524,000
Annual Production....	2,651,000	2,204,000	2,229,000	2,903,000	2,541,000	12,528,000	2,506,000
Stocks*—							
In U. S., 1st Sep. ea. year	52,000	58,000	82,000	32,000	94,000	....	....
Great Britain, 1st Jan....	265,000	464,000	538,000	561,000	785,000	....	....
France and the Continent, 1st January...........	147,000	209,000	223,000	246,000	270,000	....	....
Total Supply.........	3,115,000	2,935,000	3,072,000	3,742,000	3,690,000	....	....
Consumption—							
In Great Britain......	1,305,000	1,160,000	1,249,000	1,412,000	1,441,000	6,569,000	1,313,000
In France............	434,000	426,000	441,000	406,000	388,000	2,095,000	419,000
On the Continent†	276,000	262,000	315,000	337,000	298,000	1,488,000	298,000
	2,105.000	1,848,000	2,005,005	2,155,000	2,095,000	10,150,000	2,030,000
In the U. States.......	295,000	297,000	268,000	325,000	347,900	1,532,000	306,000
Consumption as per tables	2,310,000	2,145,000	2,273,000	2,480,000	2,474,000	11,682,000	2,336,000
Add to each year those quantities which have been exported to Foreign ports, and not included in Tables of Consumption, but required to balance........	4,000	6,000	9.000	12,000	17,000	48,000	10,000
Total Consumption	2,314,000	2,251,000	2,282,000	2,492,000	2,491,000	11,730,000	2,34

	1845	1846	1847	1848	1849	Aggregate.	Averag
Crop of Atlantic Ports—							
Savannah............	295,000	192,000	243,000	255,000	391,000	1,376,000	275,000
Charleston............	428,000	251,000	350,000	261,000	458,000	1,748,000	350,000
Virginia...............	25,000	8,000	14,000	9,000	18,000	74,000	15,000
North Carolina.........	12,000	11,000	6,000	2,000	10,000	41,000	8,000
Atlantic ports.........	760,000	462,000	613,900	527,000	877,000	3,239,000	648,000
Crop of Gulf Ports—							
New-Orleans.........	929,000	1,041,000	706,000	1,191,000	1,094,000	4,961,000	992,000
Mobile................	517,000	423,000	323,000	436,000	519,000	2,218,000	444,000
Florida...............	189,000	141,000	128,000	154,000	200,000	812,000	162,000
Texas and other ports..	....	34,000	8,000	40,000	39,000	121,000	24,000
Gulf ports.............	1,635,000	1,639,000	1,165,000	1,827,000	1,852,000	8,112,000	1,622,000
Atlantic ports.........	760,000	462,000	613,000	527,000	877,000	3,239,000	648,000
Total crop U. States...	2,395,000	2,101,000	1,778,000	2,348,000	2,729,000	11,351,000	2,270,000
Crop of India, Egypt. Brazil, &c., Imp. into Europe	461,000	319,000	481,000	401,000	538,000	2,200,000	440,000
Annual Production....	2,856,000	2,420,000	2,259,000	2,749,000	3,267,000	13,351,000	2,710,000
*Stocks—**							
In U. S., 1st Sep. ea. year.	160,000	94,000	107,000	215,000	172,000	....	....
Great Britain, 1st Jan....	897,000	1,055,000	545,000	451,000	496,000	....	....
France and the Continent, 1st Jan...............	204,000	164,000	73,000	140,000	89,000	....	....
Total Supply..........	4,117,000	3,733,000	2,984,000	3,555,000	4,024,000	....	....
Consumption—							
In Great Britain......	1,581,000	1,573,000	1,114,000	1,505,000	1,586,000	7,359,000	1,472,000
In France............	418,000	405,000	293,000	303,000	399,000	1,818,000	364,000
On the Continent†.....	357,000	345,000	338,000	351,000	492,000	1,883,000	376,000
	2,356,000	2,323,000	1,745,000	2,159,000	2,477,000	11,160,000	2,212,000
In the U. States.......	389,000	423,000	428,000	532,000	518,000	2,290,000	458,000
Consumption as per tables	2,745,000	2,746,000	2,173,000	2,691,000	2,995,000	13,350,000	2,670,000
Add to each year those quantities which have been exported to Foreign ports, and not included in Tables of Consumption, but required to balance........	50,000	75,000	115,000	175,000	246,000	661,000	132,000
Total Consumption....	2,795,000	2,821,000	2,288,000	2,866,000	3,241,000	14,011,000	2,802,000

☞ By comparing the first period of five years with the second period of five years, it will be seen the *increase* at Atlantic Ports has been 11¼, at Gulf Ports 14 per cent. The production has increased 7½ per cent. The annual consumption in Great Britain has increased 12¼, on the Continent 27, in the United States 50; total increase of Consumption 19¼ per cent. There has in the same time been a *decrease* of 20 per cent. of India cottons imported into Europe, and 16 per cent. in the Consumption of Cotton in France.

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* The Stocks reported 31st December, 1849, in Europe, are 646,000. To 1st September, 1849, in United States, are 155,000, making 801,000 bales.

† Hamburg, Bremen, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Antwerp and Trieste, are only included here, while large quantities have been exported to other ports in the South and North of Europe.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY.

1.—FUGITIVE SLAVES.

SEVERAL of the southern states are about convening in solemn form to deliberate upon the proper course to be pursued by them in reference to the late action of Congress on the various phases of the slave question. We have no doubt that these assemblies will be guided by a high and lofty devotion to the principles which have sustained us in every period of peril; and that their wisdom will not be of that kind which looks only to the day or the hour, but will have reference to the remotest times to come after us. The rights of the south, and the full and unlimited rights of the south under the Constitution, without compromise of any sort, *must be preserved*, or the Union will become a snare rather than a blessing. We are not children to be frightened by "painted devils," nor madmen, to provoke or invite a danger, which may with honor be avoided; but we are men cognizant of our rights and duties, and brave enough to defend the one and just enough to observe the other. In our fellow-citizens we have an abiding trust, that they will, instigated by no passion nor excitement, take a full and impartial view of the whole subject of our slave relations, which are to us country, life, death—everything; and if there be found safety under the late adjustments, safety present and future to the south, they will accede to these adjustments, and rejoice over them. But if, on the contrary, danger still lowers in the horizon, and the "cry of peace, peace," be heard, "where there is no peace," we believe that our countrymen will act as patriots ever should act, doing and daring, and leaving the consequences to God. We await the judgment of the people on issues so momentous, and when that is given, are prepared to stand by it at every hazard.

God grant that the verdict be *peace*, and that some measure shall be devised for the preservation of this glorious Union, in a manner that may cause no section of it to blush. The south has done too much for the Union not to regard it fondly, as the artist who has just elaborated some stupendous piece of mechanism. Yet no son of hers, however moderate in his views, conciliatory and meek beyond all other men upon the face of the earth, can hesitate a moment, that the progress of free-soilism—agrarianism and abolitionism, are creating fearful breakers for us and our institutions ahead, if we have not our eyes wide about us; and that if we sleep for a single moment, the hand of the madman, ever brandishing his torch, will spring the magazine which shall destroy not us only, but whelm friends and foes alike in one wide ruin. It is no time yet, watchman, to cry "*all's well*" upon the wall.

The late fugitive slave law—one of the measures of adjustment—and which the south had to purchase at much expense, though it should never have been necessary at all, contradicts, as is evident enough now, the whole public sentiment of the north. Though one arrest that we know of has been made under it, no one is blind to the fact that *that* arrest was made without much publicity. From circumstances since transpired, there is reason to believe, had the affair been generally known, there would have been resistance, and without doubt *rescue*. If the intelligent people of the north be willing to carry out the law in good faith, there are ignorant or bad men enough to defeat its action, if they will. Already have meetings been held, not of fugitive slaves and free negroes only, but of white men, in many parts, who have solemnly pledged themselves *the runaway shall be protected at every hazard.* It will be found practically impossible for th southerner, we apprehend, even with this law, to reclaim his fugitive slave. as public sentiment will compel the commissioner, it is said, to resign, if rowdyism does not peril the master's life in the attempt. *There is no other country under Heaven where a man can only regain his property when out of his possession, by braving dangers, far beyond those that exist in a state of nature, when each man, with his sword or his rifle, is a law unto himself!* We have no faith in this fugitive slave bill, though we shall be rejoiced, if time prove us in error. If efficient, it cannot be concealed that the great state of New-York has practically approved the course of the man who has already proclaimed its repeal.

And now that we are upon this subject of free negroes and fugitive slaves, let us give some facts and figures, that will be very interesting to our readers.

We have before us a pamphlet, published within the last few months at Washington, with the signature of *Randolph of Roanoke*, which examines critically many of the questions involved between the north and the south. The author lays down nine principles, all of which we believe to be sound :

1. That the natural increase of the Southern slaves exceeds that of any other condition of men on this continent.
2. That the general census cannot show the fact, because it adds to the natural increase of the white race here, the vast annual accession from foreign emigration ; and on the other hand, it allows nothing at all for these vast annual deductions from slave-numbers. which are made through private emancipation, and escape and enfranchisement at the North ; and hence. the census gives the white race the precedence in natural increase.
3. This being so, and such the cause, that the white population of the United States about doubles itself in every period of two and a half decennial cycles, or twenty-five years.
4. That the slave population of the United States more than doubles itself in every period of three decennial cycles, or thirty years, from the natural increase alone.
5. That the free negroes of the Southern States double in about every period of three and a half decennial cycles, or thirty-five years, from the natural increase alone.
6. That the free negroes in the Northern and Western States double in about every period of four decennial cycles, or forty years, from the natural increase alone.
7. That the free negroes of the Southern States are the most stable and least migratory of any class of the population of the United States, if we except their migrations to other *slave* States.
8. That considerably more of the free negroes migrate from the free States to the slave States, than from the slave States to the free States.
9. That forty-nine fiftieths of all native negroes of the slave States who are found in the free States, are or were fugitive slaves when they left the slave States.

Census of Free Negroes in the New-England States from 1810 *to* 1840.

	1810 .	1820 .	1830 .	1840 .	Increase in 30 yrs.	Incre. pr. ann.
New-England States.	19,487.	20,736.	21,181.	22,625.	3 1-6 per cent.	....1-10 of 1 p. c.

Census of Free Negroes in the six original Slave States, from 1810 *to* 1840.

	1810 .	1820 .	1830 .	1840	Increase in 30 yrs.	Incre. pr. ann.
Orig. Slave States...	84,254.	112,578.	145,091.	158,356.	60 per cent.	......2 per cent.

Free Negroes in the Middle and Free States, 1810 *to* 1840.

Middle Free States..	1810 .	1820 .	1830 .	1840 .	Increase in 30 yrs.	Incre. pr. ann.
New-York..........	25,333.	39,279.	44,870.	50,027.	95¼ per cent.	....3 5-6 per cent
New-Jersey	7,843.	12,460.	18,303.	21,044.	168¼ "	.....5½ per cent.
Pennsylvania	22,492.	30,203.	37,970.	48,954.	117½ "	.....3¾ "
Ohio	1,899.	4,723.	9,538.	17,342.	813 "	.....27 "
Indiana	373.	1,230.	3,629.	7,165.	1874½ "	.....62½ "
Illinois............	613.	457.	1,637.	3,598.	487 "	.....6¼ "
Michigan...........	120.	174.	261.	7,07.	500 "	.....16 2-3 p. e.
Total in Mid. States.	59,673	78,545	116,217	149,204	250 per cent.	8⅓ per cent.

He now goes into a calculation of the actual number of fugitive slaves who have been, or are still protected and sustained at the north, and arrives at results, we confess, which were never apprehended in the tenth part by us. We will give these results, and the course of argumentation which produced them.

The author takes the New-England states as least affected by runaway slaves from their position, and finding the rate of increase of the free blacks there, compares it with the rate of increase of the same population in the six original slave states—from the two he forms a *mean*, which is taken as about the *natural* rate of increase. This will give a higher rate than the reality, from the fact that some slaves do escape to New-England, and many are manumitted at the south. However, adopting this mean, and contrasting it with the increase of free blacks in the middle or *border-line states*, the excess of such increase will measure the actual loss which southern slavery has sustained. From this, Randolph makes a deduction of the slaves manumitted at the north since 1810, but whether he has taken a figure high enough, it is impossible, with our limited information, here to say. This deduction is one-fifth of the whole increase above the natural rate, which would seem to be sufficient when it is reflected how large a portion of northern emancipated slaves were shipped off to the south before their freedom could take effect.

The following are the figures and facts of the calculation :

The increase of population in the United States is unexampled in all the world. Even bating its accession from foreign emigration, and it is still without a rival. As it is, and as I have said, it doubles itself in twenty-five years. The rate of increase, therefore, is *four* per cent. *per annum*. Now turn to the free negroes of New England. They have dwindled and dwindled, until they have almost reached a stand still. Their annual increase amounts to but one-tenth of *one per cent !* They could not double themselves, at that rate, short of four hundred years! The South's fugitive slaves, which New-England is known to shelter and free annually, without compensating their owners, (independently of the large numbers she aids in escaping to Canada,) more than accounts for her entire annual increase, and consequently shows her native negro population gradually wearing out and wasting away.

Even the free negroes of the six original slave States of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, only show an annual increase of two per cent., but the deficiency is fully accounted for in the migrations of free negroes from the old to the new slave States.

But turning from these common-place details, and casting our eyes upon the columns portraying the progress of free negroism, in those of the free States which border on, or are almost equally accessible to the slave States, and lo! what wonders and contrasts strike and astonish us! The very *minimum* of increase in the seven middle free States, reaches to 3¾ per cent. per annum, while Massachusetts, with her great free negro thoroughfare of Boston, reaches no higher than to seven-eighths of one per cent. per annum! Why, at the rate of 3¾ per cent. per annum, they would doubleevery twenty-seven years, and it is but one quarter of one per cent. per annum less than the rate of increase of the white population of the United States, and falls but that much short, therefore, of doubling itself in every twenty-five years! So much for the *minimum* of increase.

But what are we to say of the *maximum* of increase in these States, of this the most sluggish and unthrifty class of people within our borders? On turning to the rolls for Illinois and Michigan, I found these States had been absorbed and deeply intent upon the *manufacturing* of free negroes, and increasing their store at the amazing rate of upwards of sixteen per cent. per annum, *each*, and as no community of living mothers ever gave births in *quadruples*, it was plain that these fabled procreations were but the spoils of felonious plunder, and under the morals of the Free-soilers, that numbers give law, and thefts give title, numerous and valuable slaves are enticed from their owners; and, in association with the vilest and worthliest that shame the earth, they are hidden away in the chrysalis as fugitives from labor, but soon to emerge and take wing as fugitives from justice! Only to think of an increase of sixteen per cent. per annum, the quadruple of that of the United States, and which would double the free negro population of those States every six and a quarter years! But why should I dwell on these cases when there stands Ohio augmenting her free negroes out of the South's fugitive slaves, until her rate of increase per annum has actually attained to twenty-seven per cent., which would nearly double them seven times in twenty-five years, or more than double them every four years; and even such a marvel is lost in the wonder that here stands Indiana by her side, conspicuous over all, in the unexampled augmentation of her free negroes up to 62½ per cent. per annum! At this rate of increase, instead of doubling like the population of the United States, once in twenty-five years, the free negro population of Indiana doubles, and has doubled itself in that time, fifteen times, and in a word, doubles itself every other year, with 12½ per cent. per annum of increase to spare!

I find the excessive augmentation of free negroes (*fugitive slaves*) beyond the natural and usual means, in the States now to be named, to be as follows :—

New-York 3 5-6 per cent.; excess over 2½ per cent	5,734	***Fugitive***	***Slaves.***
New Jersey 5¼ per cent.; excess over 2½ per cent	7,221	do.	do.
Pennsylvania 3⅝ per cent.; excess over 2½ per cent	9,602	do.	do.
Ohio 27 per cent.; excess over 2½ per cent	14,033	do.	do.
Indiana 62¾ per cent.; excess over 2½ per cent	6,502	do.	do.
Illinois 16½ per cent.; excess over 2½ per cent	2,535	do.	do.
Michigan 16⅔ per cent.; excess over 2½ per cent	497	do.	do.

Total fugitive slaves in the above estimates	46,224	in 30 years.
Add the estimated number of fugitive slaves from 1840 to 1850, upon the ratio shown between 1830 and 1840	15,400	in 10 years.
Total fugitive slaves from 1810 to 1850	61,624	in 40 years.
Number of fugitive slaves escaping to the States *annually*	1,540	
To 61,624 fugitive slaves, valued at $450 each,		$27,730,800
To the loss annually of 1,540 fugitive slaves at $45, each		$693,000

I shall now strike one-fifth, or 20 per centum from the estimates of both the aggregate and annual losses, reducing the former to $22,184,640, and the latter to $553,400; and (for good measure) casting into the account, New England's share of liability to the South during the same period, for the like aggressions, and not less than five hundred slaves, (valued at $225,000) whom the North assists annually to escape to Canada.

Who are liable for the payment? Those who took the property—those who received it—those who kept it—those who gave it protection—and those who evaded or resisted its reclamation: The citizens of the free States are liable,—the governments of those States are liable—or in one comprehensive word, the *North* is liable. There is not a legal forum in Christendom, where such a claim, for such a cause, with equal proofs, between man and man, or nation and nation, would not be recognized and enforced.

2.—EVENING THOUGHTS.

BY P. H. H.—CHARLESTON.

It is the gorgeous sunset hour,
And the gentle heaven above
Gloweth, like the crimson flower,
Blushing on the cheek of love :
Peace is reigning in the sky—
Not e'en the zephyr's song is heard,
And the clouds serenely lie—
In a sea of gold, unstirred ;
They cling around the parting sun,
Like weeping children, 'round a sire—
A good old man—whose mission done,
Is waiting calmly to expire—
While higher up the deepening blue,
Struggling—faint and pale as yet,
The star of evening trembleth through,
To cheer us—when the sun is set.
Thus when high-wrought hopes decay,
When Fortune flies—and Fame is o'er—
Faith comes with her eternal ray,
And shines above the better shore.

Now hath Daylight gently died,
And Heaven is like a mourning bride—
Her weeds of woe around her thrown,
And bending in her grief—alone—
But soon her face 'neath the calm light
Of the pure moon looks still and bright—
A brightness such as sheds its ray,
Around the spot where Christians pray—
A brightness such as sweetly streams
O'er guileless sleepers in their dreams,
When angels from the Holy Land,
Beside their couch in glory stand.

Oh! silver moon! o'er land and sea,
Floateth thy radiance soft, and free—
Thy wavy, sparkling beams are curled
Like fair white arms around the world—
As when some maiden—pure, and bright,
Gazing with eyes of pitying light,
On her stern lover's care-worn face,
Clings 'round him in a long embrace.

Polluted as this earth may be
When its dark brow is kissed by thee,
Serenest star of Heaven, thy rays
Shine gladly o'er its gloomiest ways,—
Wreathed in a glory not its own,
'Twould seem as if the woe had flown
For ever—that hath stolen long
From earth, its gladness and its song—
'Twould seem—so spirit-like, and calm,
The airs that float o'er beds of balm.

(Enchanting as the strains divine,
That welcome Christ in Palestine)—
So beauteous all—below—above—
The dews of Heaven's primeval love
Were falling to efface the stain
Six thousand years have tramped in vain
On this—our world of woe and pain—
If from that clime of fadeless joys,
Where virtue's sovereign reigns supreme—
And not one thought of sin destroys
The beauty of the immortal dream;
If from that clime, where happy souls
Worship beside the deathless river—
And Peace, like a bright robe, enfolds
Its glorious habitants forever—
If from that clime—its hopes—its bliss,
Th' eternal spirit sometimes parts,
And wings its radiant flight to this,
With healing for all broken hearts.
Surely, the pure translucent air,
At this lone hour, is stirred with wings,
And minstrel harps are murmuring there
Soft music from unnumbered strings.
It must be so: enchantment lies
In beauty o'er the wide-spread earth,
And the blest beams from angel eyes
Are shining on the humblest hearth.
Wherever Goodness kneels in prayer,
Tho' clothed in rags, the suppliant bends,
The holy choirs of Heaven repair—
Virtue's unseen—immortal friends.
'Tis when the toils of day are o'er—
When *action* ceases *thought* begins,
That holier hopes their influence pour
On souls weigh'd down with grief and sins;
And thus it is at this still hour,
When droops the leaf and sleeps the flower—
When breezes die, and perfumes rise,
In incense to the slumbering skies—
When Nature's aspect, sad and sweet,
Seems veiled, while light and darkness meet—
That the soft dews of deep repose
Fall on our hearts, and sooth our woes—
This, is the balm an angel flings,
All radiant from the half-furled wings.

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3. LETTERS IN NEW-ORLEANS.

THINGS are not so bad in the literary line after all, in our metropolitan city, and the reign of cotton bags and pork barrels, though despotic enough in its way, must now and then submit to a divided allegiance.

We have a sytem of public schools among the best in the Union; a municipal library, increasing upon a sure and rapid basis, with public, literary and scientific lectures; a medical college and law school. A University, we mean the buildings, but even this is an improvement, and more will follow. A University Grammar School, in charge of C. W. Sears, an able instructor and accomplished gentleman, which is fitting scholars rapidly for northern colleges. A Fisk public library, (it is a pity that the good intentions of Mr. Fisk are so badly carried out, when by a little good management a great public benefit might be derived—why not dispose of the great building on Custom-House-street, invest the money in books, and arrange with the University for a perpetual right to one of its large halls in the new structure on Baronne-street?) A medical journal, etc., etc.

Latterly our city has been looking up, too, in the book-making way. Within a few months several valuable works have been contributed, and others are immediately promised. We have spoken of Dr. Fenner's able volume on the progress of southern medicine, *medical reports*, etc., and announced as in press, a new work on Louisiana, from the pen of our worthy Secretary of State, Charles Gayarre, Esq. In addition to these, it is understood, Mr. B. F. French will soon issue his second volume of Louisiana Historical Collections, and that Peter G. Conrey, Jr., has the manuscript of a curious and extensive book of autographs and biographies of men distinguished in all nations and times, which will be brought out in the most splendid and costly style. Mr. Kendall, of the Picayune, will also issue this winter his magnificent *views of the Mexican War*, a work which will be sold for about thirty-five dollars. An edition of 1000 copies we are told by the New-York publishers, is already bespoken.

On the table before us is the *New-Orleans Book*, in splendid annual style, gilt edges, and showy binding, fresh from the publisher, and edited by R. Gibbes Barnwell, Esq.

This is the first enterprise of the kind in our city, and we hope will meet with due patronage and reward. Does "*Boston*," "*New-York*," or "*Charleston*," sound any better than "*New-Orleans*" Book? Indeed the editor has made a most creditable collection of writings, which, though it does not include a tithe, is still well enough for a beginning. No one can object to such names as Livingston, Bullard, Judge Martin, R. H. Wilde, Dr. Scott, Dr. Clapp, Dr. Hawkes, Prentiss, Gayarre, Dr. Neville, etc., etc. On the title page is an engraving, representing the *Place d'Armes*, Cathedral, and public buildings. The work is for sale at the book-stores, and only a very few copies have been printed.

4. NEW-ORLEANS AFLOAT AGAIN.

Start not, reader, nor fancy our goodly denizens embarked again upon their gondoliers in Venetian style, nor to drop the figure, paddling in mud-flats through the floods of a *Sauve* Crevasse. (We shall have no more of that, if the persevering labors of the crevasse committee meet with the reward we think they will.) Start not, our city is afloat in another element.

Summer has gone, with its intense fires, its provoking mosquitoes and insufferable solitude, and away from the north, and the east, and the west, upon steamers, upon ships, and locomotives, on raft-boats and flat-boats, come like flights of wild pigeons in swarms, which may not be numbered, citizens and strangers of all climes—the men that are to throng our marts in the approaching season, and make every lane, and avenue, and public resort of the city, instinct with life and animation.

Thus is the cycle fulfilled, and the chrysalis and butterfly state of our great emporium represented, as each year carries to Heaven its report of our actions for evil or for good.

Welcome again to your homes, and thanksgivings to a benignant Providence, who has preserved us in life and in health, and stayed, in the midst of those we have left behind during the past season, the hand of the noisome pestilence. Welcome again, and again, and may prosperity attend ye all—*and us.*

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6. STATISTICAL COLLECTIONS, LOUISIANA.

Since our appointment by the legislature to collect and embody the statistics of the State, we have issued circulars in every quarter for information, and entered upon a large correspondence. Our determination is to have the report ready when the legislature meets in 1852, and we beg to call attention to the following circular letter, which, though addressed to the Editors of the State, will we hope also meet with a response from the citizens generally.

NEW-ORLEANS, November 1, 1850.

DEAR SIR,—As I am engaged in collecting information, with the view of preparing an elaborate work upon the resources, progress and development of the State of Louisiana, will you aid me, through the columns of your Journal, in making a call upon its citizens for any information it may be in their power to give; and will you aid me also in publishing in the same columns, at your convenience, sending me the pieces, whatever you can collect from every source relating to the history, progress and resources of your parish, or of the adjoining ones? There can be no mode of obtaining the required knowledge more fully and accurately than this, and I trust I may rely upon the interest you take in advancing our common state, for a liberal co-operation. Several valuable historical and statistical works have been carried to high perfection in this way. In every neighborhood there are men familiarly acquainted with everything that relates to it; and I should be happy to receive their notes and suggestions, addressed to me in this city. Every member of the Legislature is in possession of the circular I have sent out. It embraces, in all their minute divisions, the following heads:

1. Settlement and history of Parish. Indian Remains.
II. Biography of remarkable men.
III. Topography, Geology, Natural History, etc.
IV. Agriculture, timber, roads, navigation, value of lands, levees and crevasses.
V. Disease and Health—meteorology.
VI. Population—its growth, classes, size of towns, labor.
VII. Education—schools, proportion educated, expense; churches, &c.
VIII. Manufactures and Arts of Parish.
IX. Commercial statistics " "
X. General statistics—societies, pauperism, charities, crime, remarkable physical events, climate, &c.

I also desire to obtain knowledge of any old manuscripts, public or private records, letters, journals, rare old books, files of newspapers relating to the State. I will most cordially acknowledge in the work the aid I may obtain. Your ob't s'vt.

7. IMPORTANT WORK ON SUGAR.

A work has just been issued from the London press, by Dr. John Scoffern, on the manufacture of sugar in the colonies, and at home, chemically considered, which is by far the most valuable ever given to the public. Having received an early copy, we are determined, as it has not, and will not be republished in this country, to give the whole of it, with the various illustrations, to the readers of the "Review," and begin with the present month. The whole will be comprised within about four of our numbers, without interfering with the other departments of the work. In addition, we have determined hereafter to publish drawings of all improvements in sugar machines, descriptions, etc., and rely upon a liberal support from the planting community in our enterprise. The "Review" has always been a costly work to us, and the profits of it very small. Will the sugar planters suffer this? —or will not each one who has stood by it in its time of trial, pledge us to send from his neighbors at least one new subscriber, and the money? These services will not be lost upon us, or upon the cause in which we are engaged. Hundreds and hundreds of planters have never sustained the "Review."

LATE PUBLICATIONS

BOOKS FROM BAKER AND SCRIBNER.

1. *Reminiscencces of Congress*, by Charles W. March, second edition. This volume is entirely occupied with the life and public services of Daniel Webster, and is illustrated with one of the finest engravings we have ever seen of the great statesman. Several chapters are employed upon the famous senatorial conflict with Hayne, which has won a place in American history; but in this the author has shown his strong prejudices against the Southerner. He says, however, of the effects of his oratory, "Mr. Benton affirmed that, as much as Colonel Hayne had done before to establish his reputation as an orator, a statesman, a patriot, and a gallant son of the South, the efforts of that day would eclipse and surpass the whole."

2. *Grahame on Youth and Manhood*; a Romance, by the author of Talbot and Vernon. Judging from the reputation which

"Talbot and Vernon" has had in the literary world, we have no question the author's present effort will prove a successful one. In this preface he apologizes for his character of Simon Bolivar, whom he does very much to dethrone from a high elevation.

3. *Milton's Paradise Lost*, with Notes: Edited by Rev. James Robert Boyd. Of course, we can do nothing more than acknowledge the receipt of this standard work, which appears in a substantial volume in the modern style. The notes occupy fully a third of the volume; and the editor, in a long preface, gives many reasons why Milton should be published in this manner, who is, to the uninitiated, often so high as to be obscure.

4. *India and the Hindoos*, being a popular view of the geography, history, government, manners, customs, literature, and religion of that ancient people, with an account of Christian missions among them, by F De Ward, late missionary of Madras. The author went from Boston to Southern India in 1836, and remained for ten years in active duty there. He also travelled extensively in the country, and carefully noted everything that fell under his eye, and we need not say the volume is one of lively interest.

5 *Sketches of Reforms and Reformers of Great Britain and Ireland*, by Henry B. Stanton. The author says of his labors, "The book is an humble attempt to make the reformers of America better acquainted with some of the reformers of the old world—to show that the Anglo Saxon's love of liberty, which inspires so many hearts on both sides of the Atlantic, flows from the same kindred fountain, etc. etc. We have met with no volume of the same size which introduces so great a mass of valuable information.

6. *Domestic History of the American Revolution*, by Mrs. Ellett, author of the Women of the American Revolution. Mrs. Ellett is a beautiful writer in verse or prose, and has long been known in our literary circles. Much of the present work is taken up with the deeply interesting passages of the revolution, which were enacted in South Carolina, where Mrs. Ellett has lived a large part of her life. Her narrative is weaved, in part, from individual experiences, and is on that account fresher and of a livelier cast.

7. *The Lily and the Totem, or the Huguenots in Florida*, by William Gilmore Simms, of South Carolina. This is generally admitted to be one of the very best productions of a man who has, at an early age, attained very high laurels in our literary world, and whose industry has exceeded that of almost any of his contemporaries. He tells us his purpose originally was, to treat the subject in verse, of which some pages were actually finished, and are appended to the volume. The work, in his own language, "belongs to a class of writings with which the world has long been made familiar, and which has been entitled, the "Romance of History. The romance here is, however, not suffered to supersede the history. On the contrary, the design of the writer has been simply to supply the deficiencies of the record. What is wholly fictitious will appear rather as episodical than as a part of the narrative, and a brief historical summary even in regard to the episode shall occasionally be employed to determine for the reader upon how much or how little he may rely for history."

FROM PHILLIPS, SAMPSON & CO., BOSTON.

1. *Spectacles, their Uses and Abuses*, by J. Sichel, M.D., translated from the French by Henry W. Williams, M.D., Boston. This is the substance of a course of clinical lectures, and goes very fully into the questions of optics, etc., discussing such maladies as grow out of the abuse of glasses, and of which no one had previously spoken, as *presbytic amplyopia*, *congenital presbytic amplyopia*, *amplyopia* by the use of too powerful glasses, *muscæ volitantes*, *etc*.

2. *Mohammed, the Arabian Prophet*, a Tragedy, in five acts, by George H. Miles. This play is published in the most beautiful style, in cloth binding, and is the one which Forrest accepted after offering one thousand dollars for the best tragedy, and receiving one hundred manuscripts.

3. *Transactions and Collections of the American Antiquarian Society*, vol. iii., part 1. This volume contains the records of the Company of the Massachusetts Bay, in New-England, from 1628 to 1641, as contained in the first volume of the archives of the commonwealth of Massachusetts. It is edited by S. F. Haven, Esq.

4. *Shakespeare's Dramatic Works*, Hen.

24 and 25, Richard III. Third part of Henry VI. We have before mentioned this as one of the finest editions of this great bard, in large and beautiful type. Each number contains a play with notes, at the cost of 25 cents.

FROM BERFORD & CO., NEW-YORK.

Treatise on Marine and Naval Architecture, or Theory and Practice of Ship building. By John W. Griffiths, Marine and Naval Architect. Illustrated with more than fifty Engravings.

The work is published on superfine medium paper, quarto size, in 12 numbers, of 32 pages each, of which ten have already appeared, and are now before us.

No pains has been spared upon the engravings or the letter-press, which last is the work of Messrs. Pudney & Russell, of New-York, who are, as we have abundant evidence, capable of producing the highest excellence in the typographical art.

We shall be pleased hereafter to give a more extended notice to this most interesting work, which proposes to publish a clear and analytical view of ship-building, embracing all that is known to be of practical utility, both in the old and new world, etc., etc. Price, 75 cents per number.

FROM APPLETON & CO.

The Gallery of Illustrious Americans, containing the portraits and biographical sketches of twenty-four of the most eminent citizens of the republic, since the death of Washington.

Daguerreotyped by Brady, engraved by D'Avignon, edited by C. Edwards Lester and an association of literary men. Published on imperial folio drawing paper, in a new and magnificent style.

Those who have seen this work will admit that nothing has issued from the press, in this age of artistic excellence, which surpasses it, either in the letter-press or style of engravings. They are the most striking, beautiful and just, without a fault. The one of Mr. Calhoun, presents that great statesman as he appeared in his latter days, and there is no other engraving which does anything like merit to the distinguished original.

Ten numbers have been published from Brady's Daguerreotypes, which have the reputation of being the best in America, as he is the prince of daguerreotypists.

The terms for 24 numbers $20, or one dollar a number.

FROM LEONARD SCOTT & CO.

Farmer's Guide to Scientific and Practical Agriculture.—We have received from Leonard Scott & Co, New-York, the numbers of this valuable work. When complete, it will comprise 1400 pages, with 20 steel and 600 wood engravings. There will be about 22 semi-monthly numbers, at 25 cents each, or $5 for the whole set. This work, when originally published in Great Britain, was under the title: The Book of the Farm, republished in this country by Mr. Skinner, but the new edition being greatly enlarged by Professor Norton, of Yale College, and adapted to our own country, has required a more appropriate name. We shall notice the contents hereafter.

DEMOCRATIC REVIEW.—We have received the Democratic Review and United States Magazine for October, edited by Thomas P. Kettell, Esq., New-York.

This work is published at the extremely low rate of three dollars per annum, in a monthly series, each one of which contains a splendid steel engraving of an individual distinguished in the ranks of the Democratic party. It has also a great variety of literary matter, and a monthly summary of commerce by the editor, which is among the most valuable features of the work.

A particular merit of this Review, in the eyes of Southerners, must be the sound views of Mr. Kettell upon all the subjects growing out of our slave relations, and it will be remembered that his article upon the North and South was quoted with high favor in the Senate, by Mr. Downs, of Louisiana.

The work has reached 27 volumes, and we believe, complete sets of it may be had. In a late No. the editor acknowledges a large increase to the list of the work, and publishes the names of several thousand democrats in its favor.

THE AMERICAN WHIG REVIEW, Published by D. Holly, 118 Nassau-street, New-York, and edited by J. D. Whelpley, dollars per annum.

This work is also illustrated with steel engravings of men eminent in the Whig ranks, but has once in a way gone a little farther, and taken such a man as John C. Calhoun. The present number contains Gen. Winfield Scott, with an interesting biography of the great old soldier.

The literary material of this Magazine is of a character which places it upon a high platform, and contrasts well with any work in this country. We should think that all good whigs and true whigs would be earnest in its support, and their remotest connections with them; for in its day of pride and power, whigism has any quantity of *connections.* Such is man.

Eight volumes of the work have been published, and can be had at the office. The contents of the number before us are: "To the Political Reader," "What constitutes real freedom of Trade," "The Reveries of Sleep," "Rodolph of Hapsburg," "Memoirs of the House of Orleans," "Genl. Winfield Scott," "Thomas Jefferson," "The Tariff of 1846," "Bulwer as a novelist," "Congressional Summary," "Political Miscellany," "The Danish Question."

BOOKS FROM HARPER AND BROTHERS.

1. *Greek and English Lexicon of the New Testament*, by Edward Robinson, D.D., LL.D., author of Biblical Researches in Palestine, etc., Professor in Union College, New-York. This is a very large volume, being the original work of Dr. Robinson, published fourteen years ago, re-written and enlarged. This step was necessary to keep pace with the progress of biblical lexicography; since, in that period, there have been new and enlarged editions of Wahl and Bretschneider's lexicons, Winer has enlarged his grammar, and Liddell and Scott carried out the researches and labors of Passow. The commentaries of De Wette and Meyer have also appeared, and the author has himself explored the Holy Land. In his preface he says, "the work may stand as an unpretending memorial of the progress and condition of the interpretation and lexicography of the New Testament at the close of the first half of the nineteenth century."

We have turned, as a matter of present interest, to the word which in the New Testament is used to designate the condition understood by us to mean SLAVERY, but which some persons wise above what is written pretend only to imply *servitude*—Δοῦλος. The author says, "subst. δέω, a bondman *slave, servant pr. by birth.* In a family the δουλος was one *bound to serve, a slave,* and was the property of his master, a living possession,' as Aristotle calls him. The δουλος, therefore, was *never* a *hired* servant, — the latter being called μισθος μισθωτος." q. v. Among the texts in which *slavery*, δουλος, is used he gives 1 Cor. 7.21; Gal. 3.28; Col. 3.11; Rev. 6.15; John 4.51; Eph. 6.5; Acts 2.18. In turning to the English translation of Eph. 6.5, we find, *servants*, be obedient to your masters, etc. etc.

2. *Harpers' New Monthly Magazine*, No. 5, Oct. 1850. This is a splendid number, with several illustrations, and is the cheapest magazine in the world. We believe 45 or 50,000 copies are circulated each month.

THE GREAT LONDON FAIR IN 1851.

Would it not be well for our sugar and cotton planters to club together for the purpose of sending specimens of their choicest products to the great London exhibition of the works of all nations in May next? We might astonish the English by the products of our cane fields and refineries, and not only astonish them, but greatly benefit the sugar cause in general. Samples of the different varieties of cane might be sent and brought home. The planters would do well to raise a fund, and even send an agent to that fair to represent them.

EDITORIAL NOTE.

We have on hand several articles, unavoidably postponed to our next, and a press of matter has excluded notices of many books sent on by publishers, which will be fully attended to in our next number. We hope they will send their works in earlier.

Let our friends remember that there is an expense incurred by us of over *Five Hundred Dollars per month* on the Review, to say nothing of editorial living, and that in their promptness and favor only we have our hope. On the receipt of a number—if your subscription is *unpaid*—remember the printer and the anxious editor; take out a five or a ten dollar note, as the case may be, deliberately *enclose it in a letter and hand it to the Postmaster, with our address.* Thus shall we all flourish and "wax strong;" *you* in your pregnant fields and abundant harvests, and *we* in our editorial sanctum.

We invite contributions to the pages of the Review—literary, scientific, or poetical, and will cheerfully publish such as may seem appropriate.

DE BOW'S

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN

REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

DECEMBER, 1850.

VOL. IX. O. S.....2d SERIES, VOL. III., No. 6.—3d SERIES, VOL. 1, No. 6.

ART. I.—BRYANT'S POEMS.*

THE component parts of poetry are three—*Feeling*, *Fancy*, and *Melody*. *Feeling* is the soul of poetry, *Fancy* its body, and *Melody* its clothing. *Feeling* alone will constitute poetry without the other two. Perhaps *Fancy* may. *Melody* standing alone never will. The importance of these several ingredients are indicated by the order in which they are named, and by the figures under which they are represented. A poem to be perfect, however, must contain them all.

Under the term *Feeling*, we comprehend passion and moral sentiment. Byron, we believe, is said to have defined poetry to be the language of the passions. It is not this alone. Perhaps it is difficult to draw a precise line between passion and moral sentiment. They both belong to the heart. It is sufficient for our purpose to consider the former as more immediately under the control of impulse, and the latter under that of the mind. We may be pardoned for making *this* distinction between the two—saying, for our present purpose, that passion is of the heart, and moral sentiment of the mind or soul. Metaphysicians are not agreed amongst themselves, as to the exact distinctions between the heart—that is, the heart *metaphysique*—the mind and the soul, and their relations to each other. Could there be any moral sentiment without the heart? Probably not. Yet, in familiar parlance, we speak of moral sentiment with which impulse, the great master of the heart, has nothing apparently to do. We call it philosophy, and say that it is the mere dictate of reason. If passion or impulse could call it their own in the first instance, it passes into the hands of reason, and she so metamorphoses it, putting upon it her own image and superscription, that the original proprietors would never recognise their estray. But we do not mean to deal in metaphysics. We merely wish to show a difference between passion and moral sentiment. Passion, then, for the present, will be considered the creature of impulse—impulse itself, if you will—while moral sentiment will be considered the creature of the mind. Perhaps a tolerable convertible term for the latter is philosophy.

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* Poems: by William Cullen Bryant. Collected and arranged by the author. Complete in one volume. Philadelphia: Carey and Hart, 1848.

Both passion and moral sentiment, then, are chief elements in poetry. There may be a sublime of passion, and a sublime of moral sentiment. One of these has been the inspirer of one poet, the other of another. It is difficult to say which produces the best poetry. A person of one temperament will claim the palm for one, another of a different temperament will claim it for the other. Good poems have been written under the influence of each. Passion poetry will always be the most popular, while moral sentiment poetry will be the favorite of a chosen few, whose minds are deeply imbued with the spirit of philosophy. Poetry may, indeed, be divided into the popular and the philosophic schools. Byron may represent the one school, Shelley the other. Byron will have a hundred, perhaps a thousand readers, to Shelley's one. Shelley's admirers will read Byron, and call him bombastic. Occasionally one of Byron's admirers will take up Shelley, read a paragraph, throw him down, and call him dull, stupid, and brain-befogged.

It was on account of not taking these things into consideration, as well as on account of a little malice borne Byron by Scotch Reviewers, that a writer in Blackwood, about a year ago, we believe, took up the author of Childe Harold's apostrophe to the ocean, and endeavored, by a long essay, to prove it *vox et prœterea nihil.* For this cause he gained the credit of being a malicious fool with most of his readers, when, in reality, there is a good deal of sound sense in what he says; and his article would have been a capital, orthodox one, could he have only looked a little farther into his subject.

But we pass from the first ingredient of poetry to the second, which we call *Fancy*. Fancy directs the poet what words to select, in order best to express his meaning. The language of poesy is essentially different from that of prose. It is purer, chaster, neater. The poet must not use gay words for a grave subject, nor grave words for a gay subject. Neither must he use trite expressions for a subject which is grand and lofty. To use grand and lofty words for a trite subject, were indeed foolish. But all this applies to the choice of language in prose also. Yet it is peculiarly applicable to poetry. Perhaps no task is more difficult than to tell what kind of language should be used in poetry. We may have our own ideas of it, and yet, through the grossness of the medium of communicating them, we may not be able to deliver those ideas in a forcible way. An inverted manner of expressing one's self in writing poetry, is often highly effective. Yet this is not always necessary, nor is it always indeed poetical to invert. It is frequently the case that the most proper language in verse is the most straight-forward. This depends on the subject to some extent, and intuition is the best guide in such matters. Yet we would not say that fancy is incapable of improvement, but quite the contrary.

Fancy includes what we mean when we speak of a "happy turn of expression," or an *epigrammaticness*, if we may be allowed to coin a word. Poesy does not allow her votaries to express themselves in a loose, careless style. If they do, she refuses to look upon their productions with that favor and affection with which she would regard them under other circumstances. She likes for you to express yourself with a quickness, a pertness, a pointedness, a laconicness. Probably nothing is so disagreeable to her as verbiage, circumlocution, particles, epithet, expletive. Rhyme-writers deal much in these things, and seem to think the latter peculiarly well calculated to propitiate the smiles of the goddess whom they seek to please. But like the unfortunate lover of "mortal maid," the greater effort he makes, after having passed a certain degree, the farther he is from attaining his object.

To so express yourself in poetry as to make the sound of your language, independent of the meaning of the words, express the idea you intend to convey, is a great secret of the art divine. If you write about humming-bees, or murmuring-brooks, it is highly effective to so construct your machinery of words, as to give an idea, simply by their sound, of the humming and the murmuring. The sound should always be adapted to the sense. We have several fine examples of this in the Æneid. Take the opening of this poem:

> "*Arma, virumque cano,* Trojæ qui primus ab oris."

Here the rough sounding of the letter *r*, as Dryden remarks, gives this line the appearance of sounding a charge, and beginning like the clangor of a trumpet. It is peculiarly an appropriate line for the opening of such a poem as the Æneid. Take another example in the following, found in Virgil's description of a storm:

> "Insequitur clamorque virûm stridorq; rudentum."

What better indicates the clamor of men, and the creaking of the rigging, than the sound of this line, independent of the meaning of the words? Now take an example of an opposite nature. When Venus, with tears in her eyes, and a melancholy pensiveness, approaches Jupiter to intercede for her son Æneas, and save him from the wrath of his scolding wife, Juno, she is thus described by the poet:

> "Tristior, et lachrymis oculos suffusa nitentes
> Alloquitur Venus."

Here fancy has enabled Virgil, by the construction of his language, to give the very best picture of melancholy feminine sadness. The most unpractised ear will discover a difference in sound, affecting the sense, from the other two examples which we have given. Perhaps we have not given the most favorable illustrations, but they serve our purpose. Many other things constituting fancy in poetic language might be mentioned here, but we trust we have said enough to be understood.

Some may think that this sounding of words should be embraced under the head *Melody*. We shall show that we mean a far different thing by this term.

By *Melody* we mean the sweetness and smoothness produced by rhythm, rhyme, alliteration, and such other graces of language as are considered under the rules of prosody. We have said that this is the least important part of poetry; yet it has its worth in poetical composition. We know that would-be critics are in the habit of pronouncing upon rhyme, and such other things as produce melody, as a mere nothing. Any one can write rhyme, say they. This is false. Every one cannot rhyme well. It requires a considerable degree of proficiency in the divine art to construct a smoothly flowing line. True it is, that this part of poetry comes nearer being the child of art than any other. But even this is not entirely so. And he who is well versed in the constituent of poetry, which we have denominated melody, may rest assured that he is much more indebted to Nature than to Art for his gift.

A poet is born one. At the same time we admit that he may cultivate *feeling*, the soul of poetry, to some extent. *Fancy* is still more capable of cultivation, and *melody* the most of the three.

We have not time to enlarge upon the principles we have laid down above. We merely intend to establish a criterion by which to determine the merits of Mr. Bryant's poetry. At some future time we may write an essay on poetry, express ourselves more fully than we have been able to do here, and illustrate our positions by various extracts from different poets. In the meantime, we must express our high opinion of Mr. Poe's articles first published in the Southern Literary Messenger some time since, headed the "Rationale of Verse." He treats principally of what we include under the term melody. We thank him for the philosophic views which he takes of his subject, and we hereby express our general concurrence in what he says.

We come now to apply what has been said to Mr. Bryant's poetry. We begin by saying we consider him a true poet—one who, though not by any means belonging to the first class, is one of nature's sons, blessed with the immortal longings which are characteristic of those who write as he does. As one evidence of it, we refer to our author's ability to see the poetical in things which are barren of interest to the ordinary eye. Dull must be the sensibilities indeed, of the man who has no emotion excited within his bosom, when he stands upon the brink of a precipice, and hears the torrent thundering over the eternal granite, into the awful chasm below, whence is sent up a cloud of snow-white spray to glad his side, or to lave his blood-hot temples. Idiotic indeed must he be, who can listen to the singing of birds, the sighing of winds, the murmuring of brooks—who can turn his eye upon the clear firmament of a moon-light night, or upon the flower-bed beneath his feet, and feel no thrillings of the heart within him. But it requires something more than an ordinary mind to discover light, and hope, and beauty, where there is usually nothing seen but darkness, gloom and deformity. Our author says—

> "Not in the solitude
> Alone may man commune with Heaven, or see
> Only in the savage wood
> And sunny vale, the present Deity;
> Or only hear his voice
> When the winds whisper, and the waves rejoice."

Our author does not look alone to solitude, to the savage wood, the sunny vale, where the winds whisper and the waves rejoice, to hold that communion with Heaven which is always held by the bard in his poetical mood. He sees beauty, and light, and poetry, in the stormy March,

> "With wind, and cloud, and changing skies."

And, in the "reign and blast of the storm," he can still say, with a heart swelling with poetic fervor,

> "But in thy sternest frown abides
> A look of kindly promise yet."

In the beginning of this article we divided poetry into passion poetry and moral sentiment poetry. Mr. Bryant's belongs to the latter class. There are various kinds of moral sentiment. To point out the principal ones which characterize our author's productions, is what we shall now undertake.

We have observed that there may be a sublime of moral sentiment as well as a sublime of passion. Of the former, Mr. Bryant gives us several excellent specimens. We shall quote from two poems, passages in proof of this assertion. Beginning with the "Thanatopsis," our author's best and most admired poem, we present extracts which refer more particularly to death, on which he discourses so sublimely here, as well as in his Ode to Death.

> "Yet a few days and thee
> The all-beholding sun shall see no more
> In all his course; nor yet the cold ground,
> Where thy pale form was laid, with many tears,
> Nor in the embrace of ocean shall exist
> Thy image.

* * * * * * *

> "Thou shalt lie down
> With patriarchs from the infant world—with kings,
> The powerful of the earth—the wise, the good,
> Fair forms, and hoary seers of ages past,
> All in one mighty sepulchre.

* * * * * * *

> "So live, that when thy summons comes to join
> Th' innumerable caravan that moves
> To that mysterious realm, where each shall take
> His chamber in the silent halls of death,
> Thou go, not like the quarry-slave at night,
> Scourged to his dungeon, but, sustained and soothed
> By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave
> Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
> About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams."—(*p.* 35.)

In looking over the poem from which the foregoing extracts are made, we are almost at a loss to know whether we have not left the best parts unquoted. At the same time, we are well aware that, in giving the extracts which we have done, we have made good our assertion in regard to Bryant's sublimity. It seems almost like a pity t any part of the Thanatopsis without copying the whole. Want of space, however, often prevents the reviewer from making as extensive extracts from his author as justice would seem to indicate. We can only say, in this place, that the Thanatopsis is one of the most sublime and best poems we have ever seen. In its course it resembles the flowing of the ocean—deep, grand, and noble.

Our second example of the sublime shall be the three first stanzas of the "Hymn to the North Star." We give it without comment:

> "The sad and solemn night
> Hath yet her multitude of cheerful fires;
> The glorious host of light
> Walk the dark hemisphere till she retires;
> All through her silent watches, gliding slow,
> Her constellations come, and climb the heavens and go.
>
> "Day, too, hath many a star
> To grace his gorgeous reign, as bright as they:
> Through the blue fields afar,
> Unseen, they follow in his flaming way:
> Many a bright lingerer, as the eve grows dim,
> Tells what a radiant troop arose and set with him.
>
> "And thou dost see them rise,
> Star of the Pole! and thou dost see them set.
> Alone, in thy cold skies,
> Thou keep'st thy old unmoving station yet,
> Nor join'st the dances of that glittering train,
> Nor dipp'st thy virgin orb in the blue, western main.—(*p.* 122.)

An ardent love of nature is a chief characteristic of Mr. Bryant's poetry. He worships this goddess wherever he finds her, and he seldom writes without having something to say about her loveliness. He sings of the "green land of groves," the "beautiful waste" of the

> "Sky-mingling mountains, that o'erlook the cloud."

To him, the "brown hunter's shout," amid the forest, as he follows the swift-footed deer, brushing away with his antlers the dew-gems of the overhanging shrubbery, speaks a language which awakens the poet's inspiration.

> "And where his willing waves yon bright blue bay
> Sends up, to kiss his decorated brim,
> And cradles, in his soft embrace, the gay
> Young group of grassy islands, born of him—"

There our poet delights to sit down and copy, from the glowing page of nature's volume, the verse which is to speak a tale of magic to the minds of thousands who will read with eager pleasure the copy which he sets in faithfulness before them.

To the man who has become tired of the active scenes of life—to him of the troubled breast, whose heart has been lashed and lacerated by intercourse with the unpoetic world, until a dark and an angry storm rages where there should be calmness and quiet, our author speaks thus of his favorite Nature :—

> " Stranger, if thou hast learned a truth which needs
> No school of long experience, that the world
> Is full of guilt and misery, and hast seen
> Enough of all its sorrows, crimes and cares,
> To tire thee of it, enter this wild wood
> And view the haunts of Nature. The calm shade
> Shall bring a kindred calm, and the sweet breeze
> That makes the green leaves dance, shall waft a balm
> To thy sick heart. Thou wilt find nothing here
> Of all that pained thee in the haunts of men,
> And made thee loathe thy life."

Our author tells us, that—

> " When breezes are soft and skies are fair,
> He steals an hour from study and care,
> And hies him away to the woodland scene,
> Where wanders the stream with waters of green."—(*p.* 43.)

In the following lines, extracted from the same poem—" Green River"—from which the above quotation is made, our author alludes to his duties as editor—he being at the head of a newspaper—and refers to the pleasure which he derives from retiring for awhile from the drudgery of his calling, to favorite scenes of Nature :—

> " Though forced to drudge for the dregs of men,
> And scrawl strange words with the barbarous pen,
> And mingle among the jostling crowd,
> Where the sons of strife are subtle and loud—
> I often come to this quiet place,
> To breathe the airs that ruffle thy face,
> And gaze upon thee in silent dream,
> For in thy lonely and lovely stream
> An image of that calm life appears,
> That won my heart in my greener years."—(*p.* 45.)

In the following extract we learn how Mr. Bryant teaches her, whom we take to be his little daughter, who had just

> " Gathered the blossoms of her fourth bright year,"

to imitate her father in his love of Nature :—

> " For I have taught her with delighted eye
> To gaze upon the mountains—to behold,
> With deep affection, the pure, ample sky,
> And clouds along its blue abysses rolled,—
> To love the song of waters, and to hear
> The melody of winds with charméd ear."—(*p.* 151.)

And here he invites one, whom we take to be nearer than his daughter even, to participate with him in his adoration at the shrine of his favorite goddess :—

> " Come thou in whose soft eyes I see
> The gentle meanings of thy heart,
> One day amid the woods with me,
> From men and all their cares apart."—(*p.* 189.)

Of our author it may be said, in the beautiful language of an extract from his immortal poem, that he

"Goes forth, under the open sky, and lists
To Nature's teachings, while from around—
Earth and her waters, and the depths of air—
Comes a still voice."—(p. 32.)

To this still voice Mr. Bryant is ever attentive; and under the teachings of its inspiration, he has written his best poetry. His descriptions of rural scenery are beautiful, accurate and true. He excels in the descriptive. Take the following example from the poem called the "Burial Place:"—

"There the yew,
Green even amid the snows of winter, told
Of immortality, and gracefully
The willow, a perpetual mourner, drooped;
And there the gadding woodbine crept about,
And there the ancient ivy. From the spot
Where the sweet maiden, in her blossoming years
Cut off, was laid with streaming eyes, and hands
That trembled as they placed her there, the rose
Sprung modest, on bowed stalk, and better spoke
Her graces than the proudest monument."—(p. 53.)

We can better speak of Mr. Bryant's sympathy for the American Indians under the head of his love for nature, than anywhere else. This sympathy for the aborigines of the North American continent, together with his fondness for the wild legends of the red man of the forest, constitutes a chief element of his poetry. A greater field of poetry does not exist, than the manners, the habits, and the customs of the American Indians. Their fierce war-whoop, their bloody rencounters, their wild and untamed passions, their deep forests, their pursuit of the wolf, the bison and the deer, their ideas of the Great Spirit, their legends connected with every mountain, hill and stream—all these form an inexhaustible mine of poesy from which our writers too seldom draw. Mr. Bryant has not been blind to these things, as a few extracts will show. Here is the first stanza from a poem called "An Indian Story:"—

"An Indian girl was sitting where
Her lover, slain in battle, slept;
Her maiden veil, her own black hair,
Came down o'er eyes that wept;
And wildly in her woodland tongue,
This sad and simple lay she sung."—(p. 70.)

Then follows the song of the Indian girl, of which here are the last four stanzas:—

"Thou'rt happy now, for thou hast passed
The long dark journey of the grave,
And in the land of light, at last
Hast joined the good and brave;
Amid the flushed and balmy air,
The bravest, and the loveliest there.

"Yet oft to thine own Indian maid,
Even *thy* thoughts will earthward stray—
To her who sits where thou wert laid,
And weeps the hours away,
Yet almost can her grief forget,
To think that thou dost love her yet.

"And thou, by one of those still lakes,
That in a shining cluster lie,
On which the south wind scarcely breaks
The image of the sky,
A bower for thee and me hast made,
Beneath the many-colored shade.

"And thou dost wait and watch to meet
My spirit sent to join the blessed,
And, wondering what detains my feet
From the bright land of rest,
Dost seem, in every sound, to hear
The rustling of my footsteps near."—(*p.* 70.)

We present the first four stanzas of the poem called "An Indian Story," as being very beautiful. They are after the manner of Moore's "Lake of the Dismal Swamp," and possess much of the merit of that poem :—

"I know where the timid fawn abides,
In the depths of the shaded dell,
Where the leaves are broad, and the thicket hides,
With its many stems and its tangled sides,
From the eye of the hunter well.

"I know where the young May violet grows,
In its lone and lowly nook,
On the mossy bank, where the larch tree throws
Its broad, dark boughs, in solemn repose,
Far over the silent brook.

"And that timid fawn starts not with fear,
When I steal to her secret bower,
And that young May violet to me is dear,
And I visit the silent streamlet near,
To look on the lovely flower."—(*p.* 88.)

An unquestionable love of liberty, and hatred of tyrants, serve as Mr. Bryant's constant inspirers throughout the volume before us. The following poem, headed "The Massacre of Scio," while it makes good our author's love of liberty, shows his love for Greece :—

"Weep not for Scio's children slain ;
Their blood by Turkish falchion's shed
Sends not its cry to Heaven in vain,
For vengeance on the murderer's head.

"Though high the warm red torrent ran
Between the flames that lit the sky,
Yet, for each drop, an armed man
Shall rise to free the land, or die.

"And for each corpse, that in the sea
Was thrown to feed the scaly herds,
A hundred of the foe shall be
A banquet for the mountain birds.

"Stern rights and sad shall Greece ordain,
To keep that day along her shore,
Till the last link of slavery's chain
Is shivered to be worn no more."—(p. 69.)

What can be better calculated to awake the string of the minstrel's harp to sweetest melody, than a pure and a lofty patriotism? Some of the best poems that have ever been penned, have been composed under its influence. Mr. Bryant is not wanting in this element of poetry. He believes that there is no country like his own. America is to him the land of political, social and moral promise. His affection for her is akin to that which the child feels for its parent. He looks upon her as omnipotent for good, and incapable of evil. He believes that she is leading in the way to the brighter and happier time when good government shall be the boon dearest to, and possessed by, all nations, and that her example will be followed by every people under heaven.

"But thou, my country, thou shalt never fall,
Save with thy children—thy maternal care,
Thy lavish love, thy favors showered on all—
These are thy blessings;—seas and stormy air
Are the wide barriers of thy borders, where,
Among thy gallant sons that guard thee well,
Thou laugh'st at enemies: who shall then declare
The date of thy deep-founded strength, or tell
How happy, in thy lap, the sons of men shall dwell!"—(p. 31.)

In the poem called "The Lapse of Time," he says:

"Oh, leave me still the rapid flight
That makes the changing seasons gay—

* * * * *

"The years that o'er each sister land
Shall lift the country of my birth,
And nerve her strength, till she shall stand
The pride and pattern of the earth:

"Till younger commonwealths for aid
Shall cling about her ample robe,
And, from her frown, shall shrink afraid,
The crowned oppressors of the globe."—(p. 126.)

Mr. Bryant is a philanthropist in the fullest sense of the word. An ardent desire for the amelioration of his fellow-men, is visible throughout the volume before us. His earnest desire is to see every member of the human family enjoying the blessings Heaven has so bounteously showered down for our common benefit.

"Will the merciful One who stamped our race
With his own image, and who gave them sway
O'er earth, and the glad dwellers on her face,
Now that our swarming nations far away

Are spread, where'er the moist earth drinks the day,
Forget the ancient care that taught and nursed
His latest offspring! will he quench the ray
Infused by his own forming smile at first,
And leave a work so fair all blighted and accursed!"—(*p.* 20.)

The answer is,

"Oh, no! a thousand cheerful omens give
Hope of yet happier days, whose dawn is nigh."—(*p.* 20.)

This "hope of yet happier days, whose dawn is nigh," pervades our poet's every production. There is no gloom, no misanthropy, no melancholy with him. We remember none but one instance where he at all murmurs, or complains, and in that instance he is excusable. He looks back to the careless, happy days of childhood, when all was sunshine and pleasure, and contrasting life as it is with what the visions of childhood told him it would be, he breaks out into this very natural and very beautiful exclamation:

"Bright visions! I mixed with the world and ye faded,
No longer your pure rural worshiper now;
In the haunts your continual presence pervaded,
Ye shrink from the signet of care on my brow.

* * * * * *

"Oh! leave not forlorn and forever forsaken,
Your pupil and victim to life and its tears!
But sometimes return, and in mercy awaken
The glories ye showed to his earlier years."

Mr. Bryant sees the evils of life as much as any man. But he knows that murmuring and complaining will not make them less. He knows that by cultivating a cheerful and contented disposition, one half of what seem to be the ills of life will become, in reality, but small things compared with the numerous other things deigned to man to make him happy. He knows that the spirit of evil often gathers its thick clouds of woe and sorrow around us, but he never loses sight of the "hope of yet happier days, whose dawn is nigh." We cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of copying the whole beautiful poem:

"BLESSED ARE THEY THAT MOURN."

Oh deem not they are blessed alone,
Whose lives a peaceful tenor keep—
The Power who pities man has shown
A blessing for the eyes that weep.

The light of smiles shall fill again
The lids that overflow with tears;
And weary hours of woe and pain
Are promises of happier years.

There is a day of sunny rest
For every dark and troubled night;
And grief may 'bide an evening guest,
But joy shall come with early light.

And thou, who o'er thy friend's low bier,
Sheddest the bitter drops like rain,
Hope that a brighter, happier sphere,
Will give him to thy arms again.

Nor let the good man's trust depart,
Though life its common gifts deny,—
Though with a pierced and broken heart,
And spurned of men, he goes to die.

For God has marked each sorrowing day,
And numbered every secret tear,
And heaven's long age of bliss shall pay
For all his children suffer here.

(*p.* 57.)

From what has been said of Mr. Bryant's knowledge of the evils of life, his philanthropy and hope, it may well be conceived that he is a reformer. We do not mean a *fool reformer*—a blind fanatic would ride rough-shod over government, religion, the bible, the present social organization, and every thing else to attain some end, which, when attained, would do more harm than good. But we mean a *wise reformer*—one who would bring about necessary reformations by prudent means—one who has full confidence in reason and education, truth and justice, as means by which to raise mankind to the highest moral, social and political position. He does not believe that this world can be made perfect, but he wishes it to approximate as nearly as possible to perfection; and what good cannot effect here against evil, he expects it to attain in another world. It is for this reason that even death itself is a poetical subject to him, and one of his best pieces is addressed to the monster. Nay, so far from considering death a terror, he considers it a blessing. He looks upon it as the avenger of the poor man's wrongs, and which will give rest to the weary and heavy-laden. Only to the tyrant and the oppressor does it bring terror.

"Raise then the hymn to death. Deliverer!
God hath anointed thee to free the oppressed,
And crush the oppressor.

* * * *

Thou dost avenge,
In thy good time, the wrongs of those who know
No other friend. Nor dost thou interpose
Only to lay the sufferer asleep,
Where he who made him wretched troubles not
His rest—thou dost strike down his tyrant too."—(*p.* 64.)

Our author is an adorer of truth in opposition to error. To the triumph of the former over the latter, he expects to owe those "happier days, whose dawn is nigh."

"Thus error's monstrous shapes from earth are driven;
They fade—they fly—but truth survives their flight."—(*p.* 27.)

"Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again;
The eternal years of God are hers;
But Error, wounded, writhes with pain,
And dies amid his worshipers."—(*p.* 310.)

We have mentioned Mr. Bryant's cheerfulness as the result of his large hope. In one or two pieces in the volume before us, his cheerfulness is extended into humor. This trait, however, is but seldom found in our author's poetry. We would never go to a man of Mr. Bryant's philosophical, equable temperament for humor. We would seek it rather in the man of a mind and nature not so well balanced as are those of our author. Yet Mr. Bryant has written *some* humorous poetry. We can now call to mind only three pieces—"To a Mosquito," "A Meditation on Rhode Island Coal," and "Spring in Town." We give some extracts from the first piece. Speaking of people's feeding the mosquito on their blood, he proceeds:

"Unwillingly I own, and what is worse,
Full angrily, men hearken to thy plaint;
Thou gettest many a brush, and many a curse,
For saying thou art gaunt, and starved, and faint:
Even the old beggar, while he asks for food,
Would kill the hapless stranger—if he could.

* * * * *

"At length thy pinions fluttered in Broadway—
Ah, there were fairy steps, and white necks kissed
By wanton airs, and eyes whose killing rays
Shone through the snowy veils like stars thro' mist;
And fresh as morn, on many a cheek and chin,
Bloomed the bright blood thro' the transparent skin.

"Sure these were sights to touch an anchorite!
What! do I hear thy slender voice complain?
Thou wailest when I talk of beauty's light,
As if it brought thee memory of pain:
Thou art a wayward being—well—come near,
And pour thy tale of sorrow in my ear.

"What say'st thou—slanderer!—rouge makes thee sick?
And China bloom at best is sorry food?
And Rowland's Kalydor, if laid on thick,
Poisons the thirsty wretch that bores for blood?
Go! 'twas a just reward that met thy crime—
But shun the sacrilege another time."—(*p.* 148.)

What a slanderous mosquito this *must* be, to complain of rouge upon a lady's cheek. But here is a piece of advice Mr. Bryant gives him. We would submit whether our author, being a son of temperance—if such should be the case—would not violate the spirit of his pledge in this advice. We would further submit whether the mosquito might not be using intoxicating drink, if he should dip his "pump" into the blood of "some plump alderman," "enriched by generous wine."

"Try some plump alderman, and suck the blood
Enriched by generous wine and costly meat:
On well filled skins, sleek as thy native mud,
Fix thy light pump, and press thy freckled feet:
Go to the men for whom, in ocean's halls,
The oyster breeds, and the green turtle sprawls."—(*p.* 149.)

We have said that Mr. Bryant is a painter of the moral sentiments of the heart. A few times he forgets the calm quiet generally attendant upon poetry of this kind, and, in writing of the passions, soars aloft upon a stronger pinion than is wont to bear him through the regions of poesy. He then betrays more of the *animus*—as it is vulgarly called—of poetry, than is usual with him. Take the song of the "Greek Amazon" for instance, which we give entire. Here he gives us a picture of woman's vengeance, inspired by love. A more spirit-stirring poem is rarely to be met with.

"I buckle to my slender side
The pistol and the cimeter,
And in my maiden flower and pride
Am come to share the tasks of war;
And yonder stands my fiery steed,
That paws the ground and neighs to go,
My charger of the Arab breed,—
I took him from the routed foe.

"My mirror is the mountain spring,
At which I dress my ruffled hair;
My dimmed and dusty arms I bring,
And wash away the blood-stain there.
Why should I guard from wind and sun
This cheek whose virgin rose is fled?
It was for one—oh only one—
I kept its bloom, and he is dead.

"But they who slew him—unaware
Of coward murderers lurking nigh—
And left him to the fowls of air,
Are yet alive—and they must die.
They slew him—and my virgin years
Are vowed to Greece and vengeance now,
And many an Othman dame in tears,
Shall rue the Grecian maiden's vow.

"I touched the lute in better days,
I led in dance the joyous band;
Ah! they may move to mirthful lays,
Whose hands can touch a lover's hand.
The march of hosts that haste to meet
Seems gayer than the dance to me;
The lute's sweet tones are not so sweet
As the fierce shout of victory."—(*p.* 117.)

We are now done with the analysis of that portion of Mr. Bryant's poetry which we have denominated *Feeling*, but which is generally called the sentiment or idea. We pass on to what we call *Fancy*—which includes the language by which the *feeling* is conveyed.

Our author's language is pure, chaste, and correct. He generally expresses what he has to say in the shortest and most direct manner. What are usually denominated the figures of speech are not often found in his writings. Apostrophe is more often indulged in by him than any other figure. He lacks one essential element of popular poetry, and that is, a rich fancy and imagination. It is very frequently the case, that a superior sentiment uttered by him in his style, is less favorably received than an inferior one clothed in a richer and a gayer dress. Tom Moore could take the *feeling* of our poet, and putting upon it the clothing of his *fancy*, would make him a much more popular poet than he is. That rich luxuriance of epithet which is so characteristic of the author of Lalla Rookh, is almost entirely wanting in our author. He rarely ever indulges in an abundance of epithet. Yet, when he does use this, he is very happy in his expression. He gives in one word what it would require in others a dozen to express. We present some examples of this happy use of epithet, as well as of other felicitous expressions:

"—— ranks of *spiky* maize
Rose like a host embattled."—(*p.* 319.)

"We *scoop* the ocean to its briny springs."—(*p.* 323.)

"Bright clouds,
Motionless pillars of the brazen heaven."—(*p.* 92.)

> "—— the thick turf
> *Yet virgin from the kisses of the sun.*"—(*p.* 93.)

> "And *stooping* from the zenith bright and warm,
> Shone the great sun on the warm earth at last."—(*p.* 108.)

> "And darted up and down the butterfly,
> *That seemed a living blossom of the air.*"—(*p.* 109.)

> "And there the *gadding* woodbine crept about."—(*p.* 53.)

We cannot dwell upon this part of our subject, and we proceed to what we include under the term *Melody*.

It is seldom that we meet with an author who is so correct in the prosody of his verse as Mr. Bryant. His rhyme and rhythm are almost faultless. It is sweet to the ear to set in motion the machine of his poesy. Yet there are some minor faults in rhythm which occur occasionally:

> "—— and as he meets
> The grave defiance of thine elder eye,
> *The usurper trembles in his fastnesses.*"—(*p.* 341.)

The last italicised line is a very unmusical one.

> "—— fitting hour to muse
> On each grave theme, and sweet the dream that shed
> Brightness and beauty round the *destiny* of the dead."—(*p.* 60.)

> "Once this soft turf, this *rivulet's* sands."—(*p.* 309.

It is a fault with the two above lines that they contain too many syllables by one. The *i* must be cut out of *destiny* so as to make it read *dest'ny*, and the *u* must be cut out of *rivulet* so as to make it read *riv'let.* These and other similar blemishes are small things, and yet we feel bound to notice them.

So much for the *Melody* of our author's poetry. Upon this subject as upon his *Fancy*, our space and their importance did not allow us to say as much as upon the major topic of his *Feeling*. We have a few other miscellaneous observations to make, and then we will endeavor to sum up the characteristics of the poetry which we have been reviewing.

Mr. Bryant's sonnets have not served to change our contempt for this species of poetry. At the same time we must admit that he does better in some of these productions than poets generally do. We are sorry, however, that he lends his influence to such foolery as the sonnet.

His translations are generally contemptible. We have not seen the originals, and cannot say whether the fault is with them, or with our author. If they are good, we would advise Mr. Bryant to quit translations. If they are bad, we would suggest to him the propriety of translating better pieces, or of confining himself to the coin of his own brain.

The pieces called "Later Poems," we consider inferior to those which precede them.

Let it not be supposed that all the poetry in the volume before is as good as the extracts we have given. We must confess that there is a great deal of mediocre composition in the book we have been reviewing. It were better for our author had one-third, or at least one-fourth of his productions, been committed to the flames. He tells us in the preface, that had it not been for a friend, he would have left out of this volume some of the pieces which appeared in former collections. When we remember that authors are often such poor judges of what they write, that Virgil ordered his Æneid burnt, and Milton preferred his Paradise Regained to his immortal poem; that Petrarch thought nothing of his Sonnets, but depended for fame upon a dull, stupid epic, we are glad to see them submitting their compositions to friends, to pass a pre-publication sentence upon them. At the same time, we often feel regret that the partiality or want of nerve in those to whom this task is committed, induces them to give a verdict which their reason, experience, and judgment condemn.

In assigning Mr. Bryant his position among poets, we would say, that he should occupy a high place in the third class, or a low place in the second rank. It may be asked, why he is not a poet of the first rank. Our answer is, because nature has not made him so. But can he not make himself so? He cannot. We think that Mr. Bryant has made good use of the talent which nature has given him. He has called in art to his assistance, and this friend of his has done all for him that he asked of her. After all, however, we believe that the excellencies of our author's poetry which we have pointed out, as well as those of all true poets, are more the result of the gift to them by nature than their poetry is the result of any thing which art can do for them. *Poeta nascitur*—the poet is born. We can analyse his poetry, and tell all its component parts—or at least we think we can. We believe that we know all its elements, and vainly imagine that we can give rules by which these elements may be united and form the compound called poetry. But synthesis gives analysis the lie. And the numskull who thinks that with the help of his prosody he can write a song or an epic, finds at last that the legislator of poetic rules is a fool, and that he is a bigger fool for putting confidence in their wisdom. It is with the analysis and synthesis of poetry as with the analysis and synthesis of the rose. The botanist will tell you to what class and to what order this flower belongs. The chemist will tell you what are its elementary principles. The light-fingered mechanic may make all the parts of the rose, and may put them together. The painter may blend his colors, and paint the artificial queen of flowers. The chemist may then declare that all the elementary principles have been united to form the gorgeous blossom. The botanist may examine the mock flower, and tell you that it possesses the right number of pistils, stamina and petals, and that every part is as it should be. But after all, where is the fragrance, the essence, the life, the *je ne sais quoi—the something unknown*—which is necessary to form the rose? It has not been touched by Nature's fingers, and she mocks the vain efforts of art to assume her prerogative.

But again. Let it be supposed that the chemist, the anatomist, the mechanic, and the painter, were blessed with a degree of excellence in their art, wanting nothing but omnipotence itself. Let them go to work and make something in the shape of man. Let every bone and every muscle—every vein and every artery—every nerve and every particle of flesh, be made and shaped to its proper place, from the cavity for the brain to the extremity of the toe. Let the eye peer out from its socket, the lip be ruddy with vermilion, and the cheek blush with the glow of the painter's pencil: Where now is the soul that giveth life to the frame? Where is the *je ne sais quoi—the something unknown*—that makes the man? Who shall breathe into the nostrils of this shape of a man the breath of life, that it may become a living soul? Omnipotence laughs to scorn the vain effort of those second in power only to itself.

As with the flower and the shape of a man, so with poetry. You may take the minds of Newton, of Bacon, of Locke, of Aristotle, of La Place, and a dozen such other men. They may employ their lives in the study of what constitutes the excellence of Homer and Milton, and they may tell you of the principle which forms the essence of every line of poetry these two immortals have written; and then they may set to work to write a poem which shall equal those of the two blind bards, and they will never produce an Iliad or a Paradise Lost.

But though we cannot tell Mr. Bryant, or any other poet, what art must do for him to make him equal the master spirits of poetry, yet we think we may venture to say what, if he had been born with it, would have made him a more popular poet. If he possessed more imagination, and a more ardent temperament—if the animal predominated over the moral, so that he would have written concerning the passions instead of the moral qualities of the heart, he would have occupied a high place amongst poets of the second class. With the same mind, and the same genius, he would have been a much greater poet than he is now. It requires more mind, more genius to make a good moral sentiment poet than a passion poet, for the same reason that it requires more mind to make an orator who speaks reason, than a declaimer who spouts nonsense and appeals to the passions of his hearers.

As we have already said several times, our author's poetry belongs to the moral sentiment kind. This being the case, he does not possess genius enough to be one of the first poets. Did his temperament allow him to deal in passion instead of moral sentiment, with the same genius he would be a much more distinguished man. As it is, his poetry occupies a place in the niche of fame. It already occupies a front rank in the classic productions of America, and indeed in those of the English language. Time will but serve to show more of its beauty and excellence. It is chaste, smooth, and melodious in its construction. It would be difficult to express its meaning in fewer and better words. It bears evident marks of continued and elaborated polish. Though it may never have reached the *sanctum sanctorum*—the *holy of holies*—the inner temple on the summit of Parnassus, where so little verse is admitted, yet it oftentimes rises to the sublime, both in sentiment and diction. It revels within the dense forest, upon the bald summit of the craggy peak, and dwells in green pastures, and lies down beside the still waters. The thunder of the cataract, the murmur of the brook, the rush of the wind and the sighing of the zephyr, with the singing of birds, are its amusement. It reposes under the shade of the spreading oak, and the little flower is its chosen companion. Patriotism inspires its bosom, and it would teach its votaries to give its country the love of their heart of hearts. The love of mankind is its constant companion, and it can never rest unless it is doing something for, or saying something in favor of, the sons of Adam. There is no night and no winter with it. Day-time and spring are forever bright for it, and the sun of hope always shows to its vision "yet happier days, whose dawn is nigh." To hasten on these happier days, and change their dawn into noonday, is its greatest aim and desire. To this end Truth is its bosom friend, and it would sooner cease to be, than part with this dearest of all companions, whom it believes to be omnipotent for good. To every one it meets, with eager voice it says:

"To him who in the love of Nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language: for his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness, and a smile
And eloquence of beauty, and she glides
Into his darker musings with a mild
And healing sympathy, that steals away
Their sharpness, ere he is aware."

ART. II.—MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

REMARKS ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI.

THE river Mississippi is one of the largest rivers on the earth, and, certainly, the most important. Its past and present condition are interesting, not only because they afford to the student of physical laws an inexhaustible source of information as to their operation, but also, because, with its future condition, are inseparably connected the commercial interests of the inhabitants of the many cities along its banks, and the agricultural prosperity of an immense and rapidly increasing population in the interior. It is remarkable for the length and winding character of its course, its large tributaries, the immense volume of water which it discharges into the gulf, and the vast amount of sedimentary matter which it brings down from above.

Formerly, before the banks along the lower part of the river and adjacent country became subject to cultivation, there were no levees, and the river, in time of flood, inundated the vast extent of low grounds, and deposited a large portion of its sedimentary matter beyond its channel; since the adjacent country, however, has come more into cultivation, and levees have become more necessary and more used, the entire sedimentary matter has been confined to the channel; while, at the same time, the quantity of it has been vastly increased, by the increased cultivation of the lands in the interior, adjacent to its banks and those of its tributaries. Notwithstanding the increase and confinement of the sedimentary matter within its channel, the increased velocity gained by preventing the water, in time of flood, from spreading over all the low grounds, and confining it to its legitimate channel, would have been sufficient to enable the current to keep that channel open and deep, had not other causes been at work which prevented that result. As the interior of Louisiana began to fill up with population, and her lands came into cultivation, the planters along the banks of the Atchafalaya, Plaquemine, La Fouche, &c., in order that they might be able to carry their produce to market by water—the cheapest mode of conveyance—cleared out and opened the steamboat navigation to these outlets of the Mississippi. Being cleared of rafts and other impediments that had previously contributed to stop up their channels, and having a more direct channel and a shorter course to the gulf, and, therefore, a greater fall, which caused a greater velocity in their currents and a greater scouring power at their bottom than in that of the main river, they drew off a much larger quantity of water from it than they had done before. The consequence is, that these outlets continue to deepen their channels, while the main river is elevating its bed more and more, and its ability to keep its channel open and clear is evidently diminishing every year.

There can be no doubt that the bed of the main river is gradually being elevated by the deposit of sedimentary matter, which the decreased velocity of the current, in consequence of the heavy drafts made upon its volume of water by the outlets already mentioned, is no longer able to transport to the gulf. Some years ago, if a levee gave way in high water, it did but little damage and excited no alarm; the breach was easily repaired. The services of an engineer were not thought necessary. An overseer, with the labor of a few negroes, was fully able to repair the damage. Now, formidable crevasses take place every year, and are becoming more frequent, and, with the elevation of the river's bed, more dangerous. Whole plantations are swept over, and even the city of New-Orleans, at times, does not seem altogether beyond the reach of danger. That this increased danger does not arise from any increase in the volume of water in the main river, is evident. The average quantity of rain that annually falls in the valley of the Mississippi, if not less, is certainly not greater than formerly, while the increased cultivation of the valley admits of such an increase of evaporation, as must rather diminish than increase the quantity of water that the valley empties into the gulf. Besides, the clearing out of those outlets already mentioned, and their increased depths consequent upon their increased velocity, has drawn off from the main river as much, at least, as it has gained by the confinement of its waters within the levees, if not more.

Should this condition of the river continue progressing, as it certainly has done for some years, the future affords but a gloomy prospect for those who reside near its banks. The steady elevation of the bed of the river, and consequent elevation of its surface above the adjacent banks, will cause the fertility of the plantations near the river to be gradually destroyed, by the slow but certain process of filtration; while the crevasses will continue to become more frequent and destructive, until the plantations along its banks, or within a certain distance of its course, will be rendered either utterly unfit for cultivation, or considerably depreciated in value, as their cultivation will be attended with too much risk and too little profit.

But this is not the worst danger to be feared from its present condition. If the river should be permitted to continue thus elevating its bed, the consequence must be, that the quantity of water that passes into the lateral outlets, which, having more fall and greater velocity at the bottom, will also have deeper channels, will continue to increase; while the volume of water in the main river, its velocity and consequent transporting power decreasing, the deposit of sedimentary matter will increase, and the bed become more rapidly elevated every year. The result of this progressive change must necessarily be, that the present main river will cease to discharge the same volume of water it now does, cease to be the main river, and finally cease to be navigable; while one of the now lateral outlets, having a shorter course and a greater fall to the gulf, and consequently greater velocity at the bottom, and a constant tendency to enlarge its channel, will receive a continually increasing proportion of the water descending from the interior, and ultimately become the main stream. This is a question of too much importance to be treated lightly, or overlooked, until the mischief is irreparable. In it is involved the interest of every man who lives or owns property on the lands adjacent to the present course of the river, but more particularly of the owners of real estate in New-Orleans, and thousands who now live by its commerce, and expect to leave it as a legacy to their children. For, if the river be permitted to fill up its bed until its elevation begins to interfere with its navigation, some new city will start up on the new channel, a commercial rival to New-Orleans, while real estate in the latter will become comparatively worthless, and its commercial reputation sink far more rapidly than it rose.

But it may be asked, what should be done? What course should be adopted to remedy the evils which are becoming every year more formidable, and remove the dangers which are becoming more threatening? Let me first consider what are the principal defects of the river, and then suggest the best, and, as I believe, the only means by which these defects can be remedied and these dangers removed.

The principal defects of the Mississippi are—1st. The winding character of its course, which causes alteration in its banks, and which causes the greatest depth and force of the water to be always nearer to one bank than the other, also increases its length in the same distance proportionally, diminishes the fall, increases the resistance, and, consequently, by lessening the velocity, weakens the scouring power.

2d. The great number of lateral outlets, which, by diminishing the volume of water, lessen the velocity of the current, and consequently its power to keep its channel open and clear.

3d. The bar at the mouth, which, by offering the resistance of a vast accumulation of sedimentary matter, retards, and thereby diminishes the velocity of the water above, which will produce a greater rise of the surface, of the river, and consequent overflow of the banks in time of a flood.

If the course of the river were more direct, there would be less abrasion of the banks, the fall would be greater, the velocity would also be greater, and the power of the current, acting with more force upon the middle of the bed of the river, the channel would necessarily be deeper, and the height of surface of the river be reduced. A winding channel diminishes the velocity of a river, not only by increasing the length of its course, but also by the increased resistance which the current meets in the channel, and produces the effect of damming back the stream.

As the channel of a river is made by its currents, its depth depends, all other things being equal, upon the volume and velocity of the water. Therefore, every lateral outlet which, by discharging a portion of the water, diminishes its volume and velocity, and thereby lessens its weight and scouring power, inevitably lessens the depth of the channel; for when the current is no longer powerful enough to carry seaward the immense quantity of sedimentary matter that comes down from above, the bed of the river is elevated by the settling of that sediment along the bottom. The more the bed of the river is elevated, the more the surface of the water is also elevated, and consequently the danger of overflow is increased.

A bar at the mouth of a river, by the resistance which it offers to the free discharge, will dam back the water until it acquires a sufficient height to enable it to overcome the impediment, and thus may produce inundations in the upper reach of the river.

All these defects are attended with injurious consequences to the permanent importance of the river, and the prosperity of the inhabitants along its banks, from the fact that whatever checks the current, or diminishes its velocity, causes sedimentary matter to be deposited in the channel. It is necessary, therefore, that these defects should be removed, otherwise the continued elevation of the bed will render crevasses more frequent and destructive every year, and the final result will be the filling up of the present channel.

To prevent the dangers which the present condition of the river seems to threaten, all that is necessary is to assist nature, or, in other words, to remove the obstacles that prevent nature from working to accomplish our desired end. Nature sends water enough from the interior to make a channel for itself, but before it reaches the gulf, instead of having its united strength concentrated in one channel, it is permitted to dissipate it by dividing itself into many channels, thus diminishing its volume in the main river, increasing its velocity, and destroying its power of relieving itself. Therefore it is that we see, where the water is united, the channel is deep, and sufficiently large to answer all the purposes of a river; and where it is divided and wasted among innumerable branches or outlets, as it is before reaching the gulf, nature is no longer able to relieve itself, and the mouth remains choked up with an accumulation of sedimentary deposit, upward

100 feet higher than the bottom of the bed opposite New-Orleans. Had the volume of water which flows down from above been prevented from wasting its strength among so many outlets, its weight and velocity would have been sufficient to have swept away long ago this great mass of deposit; and the water above, no longer kept back by the retarded velocity of the water in front, would flow down with such an increased velocity, as would not only serve to keep the channel always open, but by lowering the surface of the river, render the recurrence of a crevasse no longer possible.

The only remedy, therefore, is to deepen the channel; and this work may be commenced at the mouth. Let one of the passes which at present is the deepest, be selected. Let the volume of water which enters the upper end of the pass, be prevented from dividing, thereby decreasing its velocity and dissipating its strength, until it reaches the gulf. Let all the outlets on either side of the pass be closed, so that the water may be able to bring its whole and undivided weight and velocity to bear on the vast accumulation of soft mud at the mouth. The immediate and necessary result must be, the deepening of the bar.

In proportion as the mouth deepens, the resistance will diminish, and the velocity increase, by which means the acting power of the current being increased, the removal of the bar, and the deepening of the mouth, will progress still more rapidly. The water, being thus relieved by the deepening of the mouth in front, will not only flow more rapidly through the pass, but will make way for the water above, which is now retarded by the weight of the water in front kept back by the resistance of the bar. This, again, will then flow with an increased velocity, and in turn make more rapid way for the accumulated water still higher up. Thus, an increased velocity extending far up the river, will give a more immediate relief in time of flood, and also an increased power to render the continuation of the relief steady and permanent. Having commenced the work at one pass, the same principle could be applied to another, which I have no doubt could be opened to an improved navigation also; for enough of water passes by New-Orleans to keep both channels open, and navigable for all ships, if it could be kept from distributing its volume, and thereby wasting its strength into any other outlets than these two. The same principle also could be carried as far up the river as might be thought necessary.

It would be, however, entirely unnecessary to attempt to carry this principle so far up the river as to apply it to the La Fouche, Plaquemine, and Atchafalaya, for there is below the lowest of these outlets enough of water to keep the two mouths open and clear, and, if properly confined to its normal channels, to preserve their depths. Besides, those outlets being navigable, there are vested rights interested in keeping them open, that could not now be disturbed. But I do think it would be advisable that every outlet, not navigable, should be closed, as every addition to the volume of water in the river will increase its velocity, and consequently its power, to deepen its channel, and thereby relieve itself.

Having thus deepened the mouth and given relief to the water below, and also increased velocity to the water above, something might be done to make the channel in some places more direct, and the banks, wherever it was possible, more uniform.

Where there was a bend that could be cut through, without any extravagant expenditure of labor or money, whereby the course of the river would be made materially shorter and more direct, it should be done. This would increase the fall, and consequently the velocity and power of the current.

Where the channel is contracted into a space narrower than the required breadth of the river, by any obstructions, geological or accidental, these obstructions should be removed, and the channel opened to its proper breadth. Where the channel, on the other hand, has been permitted to spread itself over a space wider than usual, it should be confined to the normal breadth.

All islands and sand-banks in front of a projecting bank, or in the middle of the river, should be removed, and those situated in front of a concave bank, and partly outside of the proper channel, should be joined to the continent.

The object of such changes must be obvious. It is that, by removing the irregularities of the channel, the least resistance may be opposed to the current, and an uniform velocity be given to it, so as to aid it as far as possible, in establishing and preserving a permanent uniformity in the channel itself.

Having thus improved the mouth, channel and course of the river as far as may be necessary to the permanent interests of those who live upon its banks, which are intimately connected with those improvements, the next to be attended to would be the levees;—though there is, in reality, no good reason why all these several improvements may not go hand in hand, and be carried on as near as may be necessary at the same time. The construction of levees, as it is, in fact, a matter of general interest, so it should be made an object of public care. They should be constructed in accordance with some regular and uniform plan, recommended by competent skill, after careful examination, and with a due regard to solidity. A batture of — feet ought to be left between the channel and levees on each side.

These battures, in time of flood, would be subject to a considerable deposit of sedimentary matter, and thus would continue to rise higher, and become every year a better protection to the levees, and may furnish materials enough for their repairs. The height, and other dimensions of the levee, its mode of construction, distance from the main channel, &c., &c., might be made subject to legislative enactments, and a state officer appointed to see that their provisions are properly enforced. In this way only can the public expect that levees will be constructed of such uniformity, solidity and durability, as will not only ensure their ability to resist the action of the river in high floods, but will inspire with confidence every man whose interest, perhaps safety, is involved in the security they promise. Where they are left to the construction of individual planters, and the supervision of overseers, there can be no security.

But in order to carry out the improvements here suggested, in the manner they ought to be carried out, that is, with a view to permanent effect, it is necessary that proper steps should be taken to place within the reach of those persons to whom the direction and supervision of such works as may be undertaken, shall be entrusted with full and accurate information, in every respect, regarding the river and its outlets. The Mississippi should be surveyed from such points on the river as may be judged necessary to the mouth; not a mere topographical survey, but such an one as would be both geometrical and hydrometrical; and would give the most complete information with regard to the channel and bed of the river, the depth of the one and the character of the other, the height of the water in the channel at its ordinary stage and in time of flood as shown by the water-meter, the degree of velocity at various points, the quantity of sediment brought down, and the degree of velocity necessary to keep it from settling,—all such information, in fine, arising from a thorough examination of the river's channel, accompanied with correct special levels, maps and profiles, as a competent and experienced hydrotect, thoroughly acquainted with the principles on which river works should be carried on, must know to be requisite, in order to authorize him to undertake such works with any prospect of success. The outlets, Atchafalaya, Plaquemine, and La Fouche, from their commencement to their mouth, should be surveyed in the same accurate and complete manner. The effect upon them of a rise in the main river, the quantity of water they draw from the Mississippi at different stages of the river, and the velocity of their currents compared with that of the river, should be particularly noted. This information should be embodied in a complete and accurate report, accompanied by suitable maps and profiles, on which should be displayed the result of the actual measurements and examinations made.

Permanent water-meters should, previously to the commencement of these operations, be erected at various points on the river, and on each of its outlets, so that accurate information could always be obtained as to every change that takes place in the elevation of the surface or bed of the river, and its outlets. These are absolutely necessary to give complete accuracy to the hydrometrical measurements, &c.

In this way a mass of information could be obtained, which would enable a competent engineer to proceed with accuracy, despatch and certain success. Without this information, he would be working in the dark, without reliable *data* on which to base his plans, or enable him to carry out his views. Without it, no engineer, who has a reputation, will risk it in undertaking works, the effect of which he cannot calculate with any approach to certainty, and the success of which he cannot guaranty. Without it, no works that may be undertaken can be looked forward to, by the public, with any degree of confidence in their future security, or even present success. But with this valuable and necessary information before the public, there can be no difficulty in carrying out the suggestions previously made, provided engineers of competent skill and experience in hydrotechnics be selected to superintend and direct the improvements.

The bars at the mouth of the passes can be removed sufficiently to admit ships of any size to New-Orleans, the bed of the river can be deepened, the channel made in some degree more regular, uniform and direct, and the levees subjected to a regular system of construction, which, accompanied by the other improvements, can promise safety for the present and security for the future.

Mobile, January, 1850.

ART. III.—PACIFIC RAIL-ROAD.

REPORTS OF THE COMMITTEES OF BOTH HOUSES OF CONGRESS.

Although we have been disposed always to press a *more southern route* than that proposed by Mr. Whitney for a rail-road to the Pacific Ocean, we have never once doubted of the *practicability* and *great commercial value* of his, and that in its plan and details it embraces the *only* constitutional mode of effecting the great work, whether through the agency of that gentleman or through any one else.

Our hopes of a more southern route, we are now in fairness compelled to say, are almost entirely at an end. If there were all the merit in the world in its favour, the numerical strength of the North is against us; and when has the exercise of that strength ever been forborne? It is idle to talk about impracticabilities; and if there is one argument stronger than another in support of our assertion, it can be found in the fact, that the reports, resolutions, memorials, and addresses of the late Memphis Convention, have received not the slightest consideration or attention from Congress, and are destined, it is believed, to lie upon the table until doomsday.

Instead of *no road at all*—for it is certainly reduced to this—we unhesitatingly prefer Mr. Whitney's as the only alternative, and fear that it is one of the few chances left of turning the public lands into any advantage which shall be shared alike by all of the states. The cry against land and monopoly, which has been raised at the North, already enters Congress, and will exercise a despotic sway there. At every session, millions of the public domain are recklessly squandered. The late "Bounty Bill" takes off a third, if not half as much as Mr. Whitney asks, at a single swoop. A desperate game will be played over these spoils at the next Presidential canvass, and the chances are a hundred to one, that before five years this prolific source of revenue will be entirely cut off. The decree has almost been registered already, that the public lands shall henceforward be GIVEN AWAY and not sold.

Thinking in this way, we do not hesitate to publish the annexed article from the pen of a friend, remarking, at the same time, that whilst we agree with it in the main outline, there are particulars from which, were it necessary for present purposes, we would dissent. By examining the papers from our own pen in the Review upon the subject, the reader will readily learn these particulars. We have no secrets in the matter, and have always spoken plainly. Mr. Whitney's road is only one of half a dozen which, in a century from this, will cross the great body of our continent to the Pacific, as they now cross from the valley to the Atlantic Ocean. They will not interfere with each other, but create distinct

lines of trade, and travel, and population. If the *first* be given to the North, there is consolation to the South that she will come in for a share before the final day, in this as in other matters over which Congress has *now* control.—(EDITOR.)

This is a subject which has occupied much of the public attention during the last five years, and its importance since the acquisition of our Pacific possessions is so manifest, that all admit the work must be, and but few doubt that it can, be accomplished in some way.

Mr. Whitney, the projector of the stupendous enterprise, has been untiring in his efforts and energy in making the subject known to the public, and in urging it upon the consideration of Congress; and from the favorable reports of different committees of both houses, as also from the very favorable impression he has made upon the minds of the members and upon the public at large, it was expected that some definite action would have been had before this. In the meantime, sectional and local interests, and personal jealousies, have reared themselves in opposition, and possibly placed in danger this, the only feasible plan, for the great work, which may now be defeated for ever.

The South have generally favored Mr. Whitney's scheme, and several southern states' legislatures have adopted resolutions strongly in its favor, recommending its adoption, &c.; but since the acquisition of California, and the increased agitation of the slavery question, she has felt a strong desire to have the road located as far south as possible. The two conventions held last fall, the one at St. Louis and the other at Memphis, may be said to have represented local interests. St. Louis and the adjacent country urged St. Louis as the only suitable starting point, while Memphis as warmly supported her position, and the two together were antagonistic to Mr. Whitney, because his plan could not accommodate either. These two conventions were unanimous on the great importance of the work, and declared it must be done. Mr. Robinson, chairman of the Committee on Roads and Canals, in his able report to the House of Representatives, which is now before us, says, in speaking of the two conventions, "but while they have seemed to prefer a more southern route, or a more southern point of departure than that proposed by Mr. Whitney, they have pointed out *no means* of executing their respective plans, except by dependence on the national treasury; and the committee think, that if those conventions had been brought to the question of *means* they would have been confounded. None can deny that this is the *sine qua non* of questions on this subject. For the grand trunk road with three branches it was agreed, first, as to the *means*, that the government must take the work in hand; in other words, the national treasury is to furnish the means out of the proceeds of the public lands. Now it must be seen, that the three branches from the Mississippi to Independence must first be constructed, for the transport of materials to and westward from that point for all the necessities of the road, as well as for progressive settlement, as there are little or no materials beyond.

"Let us, then, come to the real truth of the case, and we shall find, as your committee believes, that after the soldiers' warrants are satisfied, there will not remain enough of available land to build these three branches to Independence. Whence, then, are to come the *means* for this trunk road from Independence to the Pacific? The question of means is therefore exhausted, and falls to the ground, on any other plan than that of Mr. Whitney. Your committee have reason to believe, that the government itself, with all its means and credit, would sink under the attempt to build this road on any other plan." And the committee, throughout the report, show conclusively, that no other plan than Mr. Whitney's would receive the sanction of Congress, or be recommended by a committee.

The report of Senator Bright, chairman of the Committee on Roads and Canals, takes the same ground in the most decided manner. Mr. Bright is favorably known to the South, as well as to the whole country, for practical and sound constitutional views; we take great pleasure in making extracts from, and comments upon, his lucid and able report.

He goes into an examination of the other plans—of which there are three—as compared with Mr. Whitney's:—

"First. A government work directly.

"Second. The loan of the government credit to a company incorporated for the object.

"Third. Setting apart a specific portion of the national revenue from the sale of the public lands, leaving the work still in the hands of the government."

All of these plans the committee pronounce as unconstitutional and impracticable. The latter, in addition to its possessing all the difficulties and constitutional objections of the first and second, is impracticable on account of means; for, with the disposition which has been and is being made of the public lands, it is rendered certain that the receipts into the treasury will be altogether inadequate for such a purpose. But the insurmountable difficulties presented in these three plans are superseded by substituting *the principle of private enterprise and private responsibility*, as proposed by Mr. Whitney's plan, which is, that a belt of territory sixty miles wide—that is, thirty miles on each side of the road—with its eastern base on Lake Michigan, and its western on the Pacific, comprehending about 78,000,000 of acres, shall be sold and appropriated to this object, to be accounted for by Mr. Whitney at the national treasury, at ten cents per acre—good, bad and indifferent—amounting to nearly $8,000,000.

And "the bill provides, that the first eight hundred miles of good land shall be divided into sections of five miles each—that is, five miles by sixty; and that, after Mr. Whitney shall have built his first ten miles of road, and after it shall have been accepted by the government-commissioner appointed for the purpose, as being in all things a fulfilment of Mr. Whitney's engagements, and not till then, he shall be entitled to sell the first section of five miles by sixty, as well as he can, to reimburse himself for his expenditures on the first ten miles of road already completed and accepted; and so on, in the same manner and on the same conditions, for every successive ten miles of the first eight hundred, leaving every alternate section of five miles by sixty untouched, with all its increased value created by the road, as public security for carrying on the work to the Pacific. Thus, when the road shall have been completed through this eight hundred miles of good land, the government will hold, as security for the extension and final completion of the work, the road itself, all its machinery, four hundred miles by sixty of these good lands, untouched, and raised to a high value by this public work, together with the entire remainder of the belt to the Pacific.

"The bill also provides, that the titles of the lands sold by Mr. Whitney shall be given to the actual purchasers by the government, and not by him, and that all remainders unsold shall be disposed of at public auction, at the end of ten years after the road shall have been completed on each ten mile section—that is, the unsold parts of Mr. Whitney's sections of five miles by sixty; and this, to prevent the reservation of lands for speculation. From the end of this first eight hundred miles to the Pacific, where the lands are poor and unavailable, the bill provides that Mr. Whitney shall proceed as follows, to wit: that, at the end of every ten miles of road completed and accepted as before, he shall be entitled to sell the whole section of ten miles by sixty, to reimburse himself, as far as the sales will go, for his expenditures on that ten miles of road; and for any deficit, he shall be entitled to go back and sell at public auction, to the highest bidder, in lots of forty to one hundred and sixty acres, as much of the reserved, untouched lands on the first eight hundred miles as this deficit may require; and so on, and in the same manner, for every succeeding ten miles, to the Pacific, selling the lands of each ten mile section after the road shall have been completed and accepted, and going back to sell the reserved lands only when and so far as there may be a deficit, as before; and all this under the supervision and authority of the government commissioner, whose duty it shall be to see to the fulfilment of the terms of the bill.

"If, at any stage of this work, Mr. Whitney shall fail on his part, the bill provides that all his rights shall be forfeited to the government, and that the road, so far as completed, with all its machinery, shall belong to the government; and Congress may sell or dispose of it as may be deemed most for the benefit of the nation; and all the unsold and reserved lands would revert and belong to the nation, the same as if this act had never been made a law. And if Mr. Whitney should die, his successors would be under the same obligations, and liable to the same penalties, on the same conditions. The bill also provides, that, when the road is completed to the Pacific, with its machinery in operation, to the satisfaction of Congress, so that the government can in no way be made liable for the expenses of its operation and repairs, then whatever, *if any*, surplus lands may remain unsold, shall be sold for the account and benefit of Mr. Whitney; and whatever surplus money may remain, after paying all charges against said road, shall be his, as a reward or compensation for this work, and the road and its machinery shall be considered as belonging to the nation. Although the bill provides that the title thereto shall vest in Mr. Whitney, still Congress retains the power to fix and regulate the tolls for both passengers and merchandise, so that no more shall be earned than barely sufficient for the expenses of operation and repairs, and the United States mails are to be transported free. Congress will hold the power to give the management of the road to any other party, at any time when Mr. Whitney may fail to operate it as the wants of the people require. Thus it is clear to your committee, that Mr. Whitney's only chance of gain from the enterprise is in the hope of making the lands, by building the road through them, produce him a sum *exceeding* what will have been his actual outlay for the construction of the road, its machinery, and the $8,000,000, or the ten cents per acre, which he is to pay into the treasury of the United States for the entire belt of lands—and this all a *creation* from his efforts and means, a *positive creation* and a *positive gain* to the nation.

"Your committee believe, that, by the provisions of the bill, it is not possible that the government or public should risk or lose anything; and so far as the road goes, though it should not be completed, the public will be gainers. In any contingency whatever, should the road be commenced and continued for one hundred or two hundred, or more miles, the government will hold a capital under its control for a new arrangement, if required, to complete the road, without loss and without taxing the people.

"In this manner, and in the execution of this stupendous work, the country will realize, as your committee believe, all the energy and effect of private enterprise, without risk and without expense, and will have, in the end, a public work costing upwards of $60,000,000, with $8,000,000 in the public treasury, for lands which, without the road, would never produce to the government $10,000,000, and when the same work done by the government would probably cost near $200,000,000, which would leave a public debt of at least, as your committee believe, $190,000,000, for the interest on which would be required a perpetual tax on the property and industry of the nation; whereas, by the provisions of this bill, it will not cost the nation a single dollar, and the public treasury will have $8,000,000 in its vaults for these lands."

It is Mr. Whitney's declaration, that he can complete the road to the Pacific in fifteen years, but the bill limits him to twenty-five years, divided into three sections; a failure of one is a forfeiture of all.

The committee add, that the road built after this plan, subjecting transportation to no tolls, except only for its expenses of operation, would accomplish the great objects aimed at, and the products of the Mississippi basin could be taken to Asia, and exchanged for their rich manufactures and products. The commerce of Europe with Asia would pass over it; in a word, the whole commerce and intercourse between a population of 250,000,000 in Europe, and 500,000,000 in Asia.

The committee also considered, that a "rail-road to the Pacific, if obliged to charge tolls on transportation to earn the interest on its cost of construction, could not be sustained; the necessarily high tolls would exclude business; and are of the opinion that the road can never be built and sustained *except by capital created by itself*, as by the plan proposed; and that it would be doomed to failure if attempted by the government, or on the credit of the government, as the people would never submit to perpetual taxation for the interest on its cost. The cheap transport to be obtained by this plan involves the only principle on which this road can be made a successful enterprise, and the more satisfactory, because it will not cost the government or people a single dollar."

"Your committee think it would be very difficult, and enormously expensive, if not impossible, to construct such a road through a now entire wilderness, on any plan of means, unless settlement can keep pace with the work; and that this plan, as it connects the sale and settlement of the lands with the work itself, is not only the *only* sure plan of means, but by it the work will advance as rapidly, or more so, than on any other plan. Besides, these lands, with this great highway through their centre, could not, in the opinion of the committee, fail to command any amount of money required for the progress of the work, as their daily increasing value would render them the most safe and most profitable investment for money.

"Your committee believe that the building of the road will undoubtedly create facilities for settlement on its line for at least the 800 miles of good lands, and cause a demand for them to an available amount of means equal to any possible judicious application of *means* to the construction of the work; and the reserved half of lands, daily increasing in value, would certainly be a sure source of capital for an equal or greater distance beyond the good and through the poor lands, a part of which latter would no doubt be made available for settlement by means of the road.

"Objections have been urged against this plan,

"First. That it is too immense to be placed under the management of one individual.

"Second. That its magnitude, and time required to complete it, would render it impossible to procure capital for its execution.

"Third. That it would be unwise to place such a work, subject to the contingency of the life of a single man."

1. Now it is presumed, that these objections have been made by those who have not examined, and do not sufficiently understand the grand principles of the plan. The committee say, "any one may say, that a rail-road to the Pacific can, and ought to be built; and that this or the other is the better plan and best route; but no one will pretend that a work of such magnitude can be accomplished without *means*, and means certain and available to an immense amount." And the man who has devised the *only feasible plan*, in all its details, from beginning to end, for the accomplishment of this stupendous work, which is to make a complete revolution in the routes of commerce, bring the great bulk of the trade of the world on its line, and make our country the great *focus* of the commercial transactions of all nations; making the heart of our country the centre of the world, its banking house and its great exchange, without the outlay of one dollar by the nation, or any burden or tax upon the people—the man who has devoted to this great object, exclusively, more than eight years of the best part of his life, at his own expense, and procured the almost unanimous approval of some twenty state legislatures, as well as of public meetings in many of the principal populous cities throughout the country—the man who originated the whole subject, long before our possessions in Oregon were secured to us, and the means of bringing it to its present position before Congress and the public—if he is not competent, under the complete control of Congress, to execute his own designs, then who, we ask, is the man, or who are the men combined, to whom the nation can look for the accomplishment of the undertaking.

2. The second objection, the impossibility of raising capital, owing to the magnitude of the work, time, &c., we think is without foundation, because it will be seen on examination, that if necessary, each

ten mile section of road may *depend distinctly and exclusively* upon its own section of five miles by sixty, (the half of the lands through which this ten miles may have been built;) that is, a man or men may loan the money to build one section or ten or more sections of ten miles each, and when each section of ten miles shall have been completed, the sale of the land would commence, and as fast as sold, return the loan, so that the loan may be paid back, just as soon and as fast as might be desired, though the security would be constantly increasing, by means of the road, as well as by the influence of constant settlement; that each section of ten miles may depend *entirely* upon itself, and be settled by itself, without retarding the progress of the work. This is the great principle by which this tremendous enterprise is to be made as simple as any ordinary, every-day transaction; without corporate powers from Congress; without a company, without stock, and without dividends—and compared with the effect which all rail-roads have had in increasing the value of agricultural lands on their line and in their vicinity, we think there can be no doubt of the ability of the lands on the line of the proposed road, to furnish all the means that may be required for its most speedy construction.

3. The objection to its being subject to the contingency of the life of one man.

This is answered in part by the answer to the second, because a machine so simple, once put into operation, as it provides in itself the power for its own motion, will perform its course almost alone, and in case of Mr. Whitney's death, it would run on the same with his successors.

On the subject of a route for the road, the Committee of Congress have made that entirely subject to, and dependent on, the means.—The lands being the only source of means, can be made available only by building the road over them; and as the sale of the lands to Mr. Whitney is a positive sale, and the construction of the road by him strictly and purely an individual enterprise, neither the committee nor Congress can decide upon a route for Mr. Whitney.

> "He himself must decide, first, whether the lands on the line of his proposed route can be made available for means; next, whether they will furnish material—timber, stone, &c.—for the work, and for progressive settlement, as the work advances to where such materials do not exist; and whether facilities for the commencement of such a work, with cheap and certain means of transport, can be had and do exist at his starting point. Then, having ascertained that his route is feasible, his way is clear, and, as your committee believe, his progress certain. But of this he must decide for himself, as the risk and responsibility are all his own. An attempt to decide any of these points by your committee or by Congress, might, and probably would, render the whole plan impracticable.
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> "No plan or route for a rail-road to the Pacific, in the opinion of your committee, is feasible, unless they together furnish an adequate and obtainable amount of capital or means, and a sufficiency of rude material, on or at the commencement of the route, for the road, for settlements, for towns, villages, &c., and fuel, &c. These, as your committee believe, are absolutely necessary, not only for the road itself, but as the only means, with the road, of rendering the lands available for settlement for the great dis-

tance where those materials do not exist. Your committee believe, as informed by Mr. Whitney, that available lands, with timber, other material, and with facilities for the work, do not exist and cannot be had on any other route, so as to justify the commencement of the work with any possible hope of success, and that he would not attempt it on any other route. There is no plan before your committee in competition or conflicting with Mr. Whitney's that does not depend, either directly or indirectly, on the public treasury, or on government credit, for means.

"Moreover, your committee believe it will be found, by actual measurement, that the route proposed by Mr. Whitney is the most direct and shortest for commerce from all our Atlantic cities to the Pacific, by the South Pass, (probably the only feasible route,) and around the globe—which is the great end in view. It is shorter, for example, from Baltimore to the great South Pass by more than three hundred miles than by way of St. Louis; and the eastern terminus, or the crossing of the Mississippi river, reckoning on other connecting lines of railroad existing and projected, is nearer to Mobile by three hundred miles than to New-York, and five hundred miles nearer to Mobile than to Boston; and, as appears to your committee, it would be more fair and more equal for all our Atlantic ports than a more southern route; and, amongst the several routes proposed, this appears to be the only one by which a line of rail-road can be extended from our Atlantic Ports to the Pacific without being broken by rivers or waters which cannot be bridged—a most imperative necessity for such a highway of commerce across this continent, as it is a well-known fact that transhipments and commissions often amount to as much or more than the transport."

The report exhibits our commerce with all Asia to be limited in its variety and amount, being an aggregate of but about $13,000,000 per annum, and a balance against us of some $7,000,000 to be paid through England; while the commerce of Europe with Asia, in which we do not participate to the value of one dollar, amounts to an annual aggregate of $250,000,000. That our commerce with Asia cannot be augmented to any advantage to us while on its present route, time and expense being against it, as well as being subject to damage and destruction by climate, &c., &c. Nor will our possessions on the Pacific, however populous they may become, increase the commerce of our Atlantic slope and the Mississippi basin with Asia, because, separated and distinct in interest from us, and enjoying the same climates, their general products being also the same as ours; their markets and exchanges—their commerce and intercourse, must be with the different parallels of their own slope or coast, with the Islands of the Pacific and with all Asia, in the benefits from which we can participate only to a limited extent. The great objects of this road, then, are, to change the route for the commerce of Europe with Asia to it, and render that commerce tributary to us, on which the road must mainly depend for its support, and to make a cheap means of transport for the products of the great valley of the Mississippi to the markets of all Asia, and on a parallel of latitude which will not subject those products to damage and decay, and so far north that the sphere of the globe will shorten the distance so as to insure the accomplishment of these objects. And it is worthy of remark here, that all these views were placed before the public by Mr. Whitney in his first memorial to Congress written in 1844, long before our possessions in Oregon were secured to us. The Committee say:

> "Distance, time, and cost of transport, are the controlling laws of trade. By measuring a globe, it will be seen that on the parallel proposed for this road is the shortest line between our Atlantic ports and Asia, and the shortest line between Europe and Asia across our continent; and it is worthy of remark, that this belt around embraces, and that this route would accommodate, nearly the entire population of the globe—that is, the enterprising and industrious part. And from the estimates of practical engineers and rail-road managers, it is evident that the low rates of transport between Asia and our Atlantic ports by this proposed road would be less than on the present route in ships; and it is here pertinent to remark, that freight on rail-roads is estimated by weight, whereas on ships it is estimated by measurement of forty feet per ton, requiring two tons measurement of teas and ordinary merchandise to make one ton weight. To make a comparison, it is necessary to double the price per ship to equal the ton weight by rail-road. And it is shown that vessels bound from Europe to Asia, and from Asia to Europe, would never go by the isthmus of Mexico, even with a ship canal; for the distance from Canton to London would be increased 2,228 miles beyond the present route around the Cape of Good Hope. From Singapore and other ports, the difference would be still greater against the isthmus, and with always favorable trade winds, for the voyager from Asia to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. Between New-York and Canton, though the distance by the isthmus would be about 1,100 miles less than around the Cape of Good Hope, still the always favorable trade-winds would make the Cape the quickest return route; and the return voyage is always the important one as to time.
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> "The distance from New-York to China, by Panama, is 13,138 miles; by the Cape of Good Hope, it is 14,255 miles; time by sails one hundred to one hundred and sixty days. From New-York to Shanghai, in China, by the proposed rail-road, is 8,361 miles; time by steam, twenty-five days. From Canton to London, by the Cape of Good Hope, is 13,330 miles; by Panama, 15,558 miles; time by sails, one hundred to one hundred and sixty days; voyage out and home, average, over a year. From London to Shanghai, by the proposed road, is 11,361 miles; time by steam, thirty-seven days. From New-York to the mouth of the Columbia river, by steamers, and by the isthmus, is 6.600 miles; time, about thirty-five days; distance for sail vessels would, owing to the trade-winds in the Pacific, be much greater, and time would be three to four months. From New-York to the mouth of the Columbia river, by the proposed road, would be but 2,961 miles, and time from five to eight days. The results would be similar to San Francisco, or to any of our Pacific coast possessions, and the expenses of transit would always be in favor of the rail-road route, which, with the great saving of time, it being the great and controlling law of trade, would settle the question forever, as your committee believe, as to the routes of all or the principal part of the commerce between these great parts of the world.
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> "With these facts as to time and distance, which have been adopted and published in the reports of committees on this subject, in both houses of Congress, and authenticated from undoubted sources, your committee cannot doubt that the execution of this road, as proposed, is destined to revolutionize the entire commercial world, and its social and political influences cannot fail to be equally important."

The report is then summed up by stating,

"1st. The great importance and necessity of this work has been shown by the Committee, also that the people have decided upon it, and on this plan, &c.

2d. That to attempt it from a dependence upon the public treasury, either directly or indirectly, or on the credit of the government loaned to a company for means, is impracticable; but if possible on these plans, the necessarily high tolls for the interest on its cost would exclude business, the work could not be sustained, and would fail to accomplish the objects aimed at. But

3d. Your Committee believe it has been shown that the plan proposed creates its own means, requires no tolls for interest on its cost, imposes no tax or debt on the nation or people, involves no constitutional or sectional question or difficulty, and, if executed, will, as your committee believe, accomplish the ends and objects aimed at.

And now come the important practical points to be decided on by your Committee and by Congress.

Will we sell these lands, now valueless and almost useless, as proposed, for a sum exceeding that which can be expected from any other source, besides under such restrictions and conditions as will guarantee the accomplishment of this great highway for nations?

" Or will we decide against this great work, promising these vast and important results—abandon them all—let our Pacific possessions separate and form an independent nation, controlling, as they will, the immense fisheries and commerce of the vast Pacific, with the commerce of Japan, China, and all Asia? Will we decide that the lands which can now be applied to and effect the accomplishment of this stupendous and truly national work, shall be wasted away for party political capital, and other purposes, whereby the nation can never receive any direct benefit—when, too, the objects urged by those who wish to dispose of the lands to settlers without pay would be more immediately effected in the accomplishment of this work, because its construction would give employment to settlers, and create the means to pay for their lands, and place them a hundred fold better off than to have the lands free of cost without the road, which is the only means by which their products could reach the markets, so as to yield a return for their labor?

" Your committee cannot hesitate in forming a decision upon this subject, not doubting that those who examine it will be impressed with the same views, and form the same conclusions as your committee have done. Therefore, your committee recommend the adoption by Congress of the bill proposed, and urge its immediate adoption. The various plans and bills now before Congress for disposing of very large amounts of the public domain, together with the constant demand for actual settlement, particularly at the first part or commencement of the proposed route, are rendering the execution of this plan more and more difficult every day; and your committee believe the time must soon arrive when these lands, on the first part of the route, so desirable for immediate available means, and possessing timber, materials, and facilities for commencing and carrying on the work into the wilderness, will be so far disposed of for other purposes, as to render the accomplishment of this work doubtful or impossible. And to wait for further surveys and explorations, as has been proposed by some, would, in the opinion of your committee, be the defeat and abandonment of this plan forever; and besides, the authorization of surveys for a railroad to the Pacific would justly be considered by the people as sanctioning the commencement of a government work, which your committee cannot recommend, nor would it be sanctioned by the people, as your committee believe; neither do your committee think it at all necessary, nor does this plan require, to delay the adoption of this bill for further surveys. The rivers have been examined by Mr. Whitney himself, to ascertain at what points they can be bridged. From the lake to his point on the Mississippi, it is well known that there are no difficulties on his route; from the Mississippi to his point on the Missouri, his route is without obstacles; and thence to the South Pass, it is well known that impediments do not exist. While these three sections are being constructed, the route thence to the Pacific can be explored, surveyed, and fixed upon.

"The route from the lake to the South Pass, as your committee are informed, has no parallel for feasibility on the face of the globe; and from the South Pass to the Pacific, the explorations of Colonel Fremont and others, as well as the immense emigration to Oregon and California, abundantly certify that it is feasible. Besides, the streams which wend their way all from the South Pass to the Columbia and the Pacific, indicate a favorable route, it being a well-known fact, that there are no very great falls or rapids in the streams emptying into the Columbia; and that river, the only one through all our possessions running west from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific, has cut its way and made a route through the mountains to the ocean."

We have devoted much time and space to this great subject, more important and more vast than any subject which has been before this or any age; and we hope our readers will patiently read and carefully examine it. It involves questions of immense—yes, incalculable importance, alike to us as a nation and to all mankind. A decision must now be given upon it; the coming session of Congress must adopt or reject it. Our readers will have seen what is said by the Senate Committee, and the House Committee speak the same language, "that the only available means will very soon be applied to other objects." Then this great work must be abandoned or undertaken as a government work; and it is safe, we think, to say decidedly, that as a government work it cannot be sanctioned by either of the great parties of the South.

We repeat, this is the most important question of the age. In a national and philanthropic view, we cannot hesitate in our decision. Here is a work, the execution of which in money would probably cost $200,000,000 or more; it promises to revolutionize the commercial, and perhaps the political and social relations of the great bulk of mankind, subjecting all to pay tribute to our nation. And by this plan which we are now asked to pronounce upon, the work, instead of involving the nation in debt, and subjecting the people to burdensome taxation, will not cost the nation a dollar, but will place money into the public treasury—will give to the nation a *free* highway for all the world—will bring the waste wilderness into usefulness, and give homes and plenty to millions now useless, destitute, and oppressed—and would spread its benefits not only over all our country, but over all the entire globe.

Philanthropically and nationally, there could be no hesitancy in our opinion; and did peace and harmony exist between the North

South, the latter we believe would, with one voice, say Amen to Mr. Whitney's proposition. But as it is, the North continually aggressing upon the South, we may justly hesitate before we enter into further partnership concerns with partners whom we know to be opposed to us in every feeling and interest.

Therefore, after what we have said in favour of this project considered nationally, we will now continue to examine it as to the interests of the South alone.

1st. The route proposed is all on what is termed free soil.

2d. It is beyond a doubt that the building of the road would greatly accelerate the settlement of the entire line to the Pacific. On this fact depends the success of the work. By many whose opinions we are bound to respect, it is feared that such a result would be prejudicial to the South, by increasing a population hostile to our institutions.

We propose to examine these objections, first, with a view to the continuance of the union of the States; and, secondly, with a view to the dissolution of the States, and the formation of a southern confederacy. But before going into this examination, we will admit that this work will be undertaken either on Mr. Whitney's plan or by the government. If undertaken as a government work, it would be a powerful political engine, and used by the North against the South, and made the capital for the Presidential chair. Mr. Whitney's plan is already violently opposed at the North by two aspirants to the Presidency.

The first, objection to route.

Now, as there is no plan except Mr. Whitney's that is not dependent, directly or indirectly, on the public treasury for means, which can never be sanctioned by the South; and as there is no other route which can furnish an adequate amount of land to induce Mr. Whitney to undertake the work, and as he takes upon himself all the risk of making the lands produce the means for the work, certainly no one can desire or expect any man to undertake to accomplish that, which he himself says is impossible. Of all this he must decide for himself. Were the work to be done by the government, then it might be otherwise, and there would arise a controversy for the location of the route which would most likely defeat all; but as it is, there is left to us no choice, except to decide between Mr. Whitney's plan and no road at all.

The passage of the bill granting alternate sections of the public lands to aid in the construction of the Mobile, Chicago, and Galena road, renders it pretty certain that a line from Galena, through Illinois and Tennessee, connecting with the lines to Mobile, Savannah, Charleston, and Norfolk, will be completed, giving to the South a direct connection with Mr. Whitney's proposed route; and the committee of Congress have shown that this line is less distant from all the above named cities to Mr. Whitney's road, than from the northern Atlantic cities to it, with a far more favorable grade. Would not this give to the South an advantage over the North? And besides, we have the Mississippi open and navigable for a greater length of time each year than the lakes and canals. The committee have shown that Mr. Whitney's proposed route to the Pacific is not longer even from Charleston, than any other route which has been named from Charleston to the Pacific. Is it not, therefore, the interest of the South to run up east of the Mississippi, and connect with him as far north as possible?—because every thing west of our line must first come east to us, and could be brought through the great funnel of Tennessee and Georgia, to our southern Atlantic ports, at a less cost of transport than if taken further north.

The second objection,—the acceleration of settlement on the line of the road, and its prejudicial influences, &c.

The building of the road would undoubtedly concentrate and accelerate settlement; but it would be drawn from other sections, *also free soil*, too remote from, to participate in the benefit which this road would confer; and, besides, should this road not be undertaken—and we have admitted that it must be, either on this plan or by the government—the works and improvements now underway, with the demand and high price for labor all over the free states, will for a long time increase the population of those states nearly as fast as if this road were being built, so that the aggregate of northern votes could differ but little; but the building of the road would draw from other sections, and particularly from our large cities, that population now without homes or interest, except for their daily bread; now the machinery for the demagogue, for excitement and mischief. But place the same persons on the line of this road, and they would soon become land owners, *not land reformers*. They would have homes, comforts, and plenty, and an interest in every thing around them. Such people cannot be used by the demagogue. They would have means to supply all their wants, and could consume largely of southern products, and could not be supplied from any other source. Being agriculturists, and desiring no protective legislation, would not their wants and their interests be more directly connected with the South than with the North and East? And is it not a fact, that a great part of the feeling of the North against the South has originated from the fact, that the South generally opposes the protective policy on which the North are so determinedly bent? And who, what body of men are so easily wrought upon to madness and destruction as the inmates of the crowded workshops of the manufacturers, when thrown out of employment by their masters, and themselves and children reduced to the last morsel, to influence the acts of Congress? Such a population is dangerous to the interests of the South, and we witness it daily; but were the same persons placed on the line of this road, with their farms, their houses, and substantial interest, they would, we believe, support and strengthen the South.

Again, these lands lie north of us, and is there any other way by which we can get any part of our interest in them? Is it not well understood that they are to be made the capital against the South for the presidency? And do we not see many of the leading politicians North proposing to give them away without any direct benefit to the who deny the right of man to buy or sell land, with their regular annual congresses: and their creed is becoming a test question at the North and North-west; politicians are rapidly falling in with them, and, can any one doubt, that the plan of giving away the lands is popular and must succeed? Should the Union continue, and God grant it may, then we think the course of the South is plain, and in favor of Mr. Whitney's plan. But should a dissolution take place, could the South in that event have any interest in these lands? Is not the North by every plan, seeking, as rapidly as possible, to render them of no value? See what the last session of Congress has done, and is proposing to do, with the lands—they are already reduced to nearly of no value.

But should the road be built on the plan proposed, it will be an individual enterprise, without tolls for dividends; and the many interests it would accommodate, will, we think, be a guaranty that it would be kept so. The South would connect with it by the lines now in progress of construction, and we think the interests of the sections through which those lines are to run will be sure to force their completion, so that as a separate nation we do not see any reason to doubt that the South could connect with, and receive great benefit from this road. And in case of dissolution, the South would hold all the lands now on any southern route; and if they could be made available for the means to build a rail-road to the Pacific, it would, no doubt, be done, and the same if the Union continues, so that we cannot see how Mr. Whitney's project should be made to conflict with a southern one, or with southern interests.

We repeat, *this question must be decided at the coming session of Congress*; after that period the land which can now be made available, can no longer be made so, and any delays for the further explorations and surveys is wholly unnecessary, and would be the abandonment and defeat of this plan forever.

ART. IV.—CHANCELLOR HARPER'S MEMOIR ON SLAVERY.*

IN WHAT OUR SLAVERY DIFFERS FROM THE SERVITUDE OF OTHER COUNTRIES—GENERAL INFLUENCES OF SLAVERY.

THERE is something in this word *Slavery* which seems to partake of the qualities of the insane root, and distempers the minds of men. That which would be true in relation to one predicament, they misapply to another, to which it has no application at all. Some of the virtues of a freeman would be the vices of slaves. To submit to a blow, would be degrading to a freeman, because he is the protector of himself. It is not degrading to a slave—neither is it to a priest or a woman. And is it a misfortune that it should be so? The freeman of other countries is compelled to submit to indignities hardly more endurable than blows—indignities to make the sensitive feelings shrink, and the proud heart swell; and this very name of freeman gives them double rancor. If when a man is born in Europe, it were certainly foreseen that he was destined to a life of painful labor—to obscurity, contempt and privation—would it not be mercy that he should be reared in ignorance and apathy, and trained to the endurance of the evils he must encounter? It is not certainly foreseen as to any individual, but it is foreseen as to the great mass of those born of the laboring poor; and it is for the mass, not for the exception, that the institutions of society are to provide. Is it not better that the character and intellect of the individual should be suited to the station which he is to occupy? Would you do a benefit to the horse or the ox, by giving him a cultivated understanding, or fine feelings? So far as the mere laborer has the pride, the knowledge, or the aspirations of a freeman, he is unfitted for his situation, and must doubly feel its infelicity. If there are sordid, servile, and laborious offices to be performed, is it not better that there should be sordid, servile, and laborious beings to perform them? If there were infallible marks by which individuals of inferior intellect, and inferior character, could be selected at their birth—would not the interests of society be served, and would not some sort of fitness seem to require, that they should be selected for the inferior and servile offices? And if this race be generally marked by such inferiority, is it not fit that they should fill them?

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* Continued from November Number.

I am well aware that those whose aspirations are after a state of society from which evil shall be banished, and who look in life for that which life will never afford, contemplate that all the offices of life may be performed without contempt or degradation—all be regarded as equally liberal, or equally respected. But theorists cannot control Nature and bend her to their views, and the inequality of which I have before spoken is deeply founded in nature. The offices which employ knowledge and intellect, will always be regarded as more liberal than those which only require the labor of the hands. When there is competition for employment, he who gives it bestows a favor, and it will be so received. He will assume superiority from the power of dismissing his laborers, and from fear of this, the latter will practise deference, often amounting to servility. Such in time will become the established relation between the employer and the employed, the rich and the poor. If want be accompanied with sordidness and squalor, though it be pitied, the pity will be mixed with some degree of contempt. If it lead to misery, and misery to vice, there will be disgust and aversion.

What is the essential character of *Slavery*, and in what does it differ from the *servitude* of other countries? If I should venture on a definition, I should say that where a man is compelled to labor at the will of another, and to give him much the greater portion of the product of his labor, there *Slavery* exists; and it is immaterial by what sort of compulsion the will of the laborer is subdued. It is what no human being would do without some sort of compulsion. He cannot [illegible] Compelled by parish law to support his family, which means to join them in consuming an allowance from the parish, he frequently conspires with his wife to get that allowance increased, or prevent its being diminished. This brings beggary, trickery, and quarrelling, and ends in settled craft. Though he have the inclination, he wants the courage to become, like more energetic men of his class, a poacher or smuggler on a small scale, but he pilfers occasionally, and teaches his children to lie and steal. His subdued and slavish manner towards his great neighbors shows that they treat him with suspicion and harshness. Consequently, he at once hates and dreads them; but he will never harm them by violent means. Too degraded to be desperate, he is only thoroughly depraved. His miserable career will be short; rheumatism and asthma are conducting him to the workhouse, where he will breathe his last without one pleasant recollection, and so make room for another wretch, who may live and die in the same way." And this description, or some other not much less revolting, is applied to the "bulk of the people—the great body of the people." Take the following description of the condition of childhood, which has justly been called eloquent.*

"The children of the very poor have no young times. It makes the very heart bleed to overhear the casual street talk between a poor woman and her little girl,—a woman of the better sort of poor, in a condition rather above the squalid beings we have been contemplating. It is not of toys, of nursery books, of summer holidays (fitting that age), of the promised sight or play, of praised sufficiency at school;—it is of mangling and clear-starching—of the price of coals or of potatoes. The questions of the child, that should be the very outpourings of curiosity in idleness, are marked with forecast and melancholy providence. It has come to be a woman before it was a child. It has learned to go to market; it chaffers, it haggles, it envies, it murmurs; it is knowing, acute, sharpened; it never prattles." Imagine such a description applied to the children of negro slaves, the most vacant of human beings, whose life is a holiday.

And this people to whom these horrors are familiar, are those who fill the world with clamor concerning the injustice and cruelty of slavery. I speak in no invidious spirit; neither the laws nor the government of England are to be reproached with the evils which are inseparable from the state of their society. As little, undoubtedly, are we to be reproached with the existence of our slavery. Including the whole United States—and, for reasons already given, the whole ought to be included, as receiving in no unequal degree the benefit—may we not say justly that we have less slavery, and more mitigated slavery, than any country in the civilized world?

That they are called free, undoubtedly aggravates the sufferings of the slaves of other regions. They see the enormous inequality which exists, and feel their own misery, and can hardly conceive otherwise, than that there is some injustice in the institutions of society to occasion these. They regard the apparently more fortunate class as oppressors,—and it adds bitterness that they should be of the same name and race. They feel indignity more acutely, and more of discontent and evil passion is excited. They feel that it is mockery that calls them free. Men do not so much hate and envy those who are separated from them by a wide distance, and some apparently impassable barrier, as those who approach nearer to their own condition, and with whom they habitually bring themselves into comparison. The slave with us is not tantalized with the name of freedom, to which his whole condition gives the lie, and would do so if he were emancipated to-morrow. The African slave sees that Nature herself has marked him as a separate—and if left to himself, I have no doubt he would feel it to be an inferior—race, and interposed a barrier almost insuperable to his becoming a member of the same society,—standing on the same footing of right and privilege with his master.

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* Essay on Elia.

That the African negro is an inferior variety of the human race, is, I think, now generally admitted, and his distinguishing characteristics are such as peculiarly mark him out for the situation which he occupies among us; and those are no less marked in their original country than as we have daily occasion to observe them. The most remarkable is their indifference to personal liberty. In this they have followed their instincts, since we have any knowledge of their continent, by enslaving each other; but, contrary to the experience of every other race, the possession of slaves has no material effect in raising the character, and promoting the civilization, of the master. Another trait is the want of domestic affections, and insensibility to the ties of kindred. In the travels of the Landers, after speaking of a single exception, in the person of a woman who betrayed some transient emotion in passing by the country from which she had been torn as a slave, the author adds:—"that Africans, generally speaking, betray the most perfect indifference on losing their liberty and being deprived of their relatives, while love of country is equally a stranger to their breasts, as social tenderness or domestic affection." "Marriage is celebrated by the natives as unconcernedly as possible; a man thinks as little of taking a wife as of cutting an ear of corn; affection is altogether out of the question." They are, however, very submissive to authority, and seem to entertain great reverence for chiefs, priests, and masters. No greater indignity can be offered an individual, than to throw opprobrium on his parents. On this point of their character I think I have remarked that, contrary to the instincts of nature in other races, they entertain less regard for children than for parents, to whose authority they have been accustomed to submit. Their character is thus summed up by the traveler quoted:—"The few opportunities we have had of studying their characters, induce us to believe that they are a simple, honest, inoffensive, but weak, timid, and cowardly race. They seem to have no social tenderness,—very few of those amiable private virtues which could win our affections,—and none of those public qualities that claim respect or command admiration. The love of country is not strong enough in their bosoms to entice them to defend it against a despicable foe; and of the active energy, noble sentiments, and contempt of danger, which distinguish the North American tribes, and other savages, no traces are to be found among this slothful people. Regardless of the past, as reckless of the future, the present alone influences their actions. In this respect they approach nearer to the nature of the brute creation than perhaps any other people on the face of the globe." Let me ask, if this people do not furnish the very material out of which slaves ought to be made; and whether it be not an improving of their condition to make them the slaves of civilized masters? There is a variety in the character of the tribes. Some are brutally and savagely ferocious and bloody, whom it would be mercy to enslave. From the travellers' account, it seems not unlikely that the negro race is tending to extermination, being daily encroached on and overrun by the superior Arab race. It may be, that when they shall have been loosed from their native seats, they may be found numerous, and in no unhappy condition, on the continent to which they have been transplanted.

The opinion which connects form and features with character and intellectual power, is one so deeply impressed on the human mind, that perhaps there is scarcely any man who does not almost daily act upon it, and in some measure verify its truth. Yet in spite of this intimation of nature, and though the anatomist and physiologist may tell them that the races differ in every bone and muscle, and in the proportion of brain and nerves, yet there are some who, with a most bigoted and fanatical determination to free themselves from what they have pre-judged to be prejudice, will still maintain that this physiognomy, evidently tending to that of the brute, when compared to that of the Caucasian race, may be enlightened by as much thought, and animated by as lofty sentiments. We who have the best opportunity of judging, are pronounced to be incompetent to do so, and to be blinded by our interests and prejudices—often by those who have no opportunity at all. Are we to be taught to distrust or disbelieve that which we daily observe, and familiarly know, on such authority? Our prejudices are spoken of. But the truth is, that, until very lately, since circumstances have compelled us to think of ourselves, we took our opinion on this subject, as on every other, ready formed, from the country of our origin. And so deeply rooted were they, that we adhered to them, as most men will do to deeply rooted opinions, even against the evidence of our own observations and our own senses. If the inferiority exists, it is attributed to the apathy and degradation produced by slavery. Though of the hundreds of thousands scattered over other countries, where the laws impose no liability upon them, none has given evidence to an approach to even mediocrity of intellectual excellence. This, too, is attributed to the slavery of a portion of their race. They are regarded as a servile caste, and degraded by opinions, and thus every generous effort is repressed. Yet, though this should be the general effect, this very estimation is calculated to produce the contrary effect in particular instances. It is observed by Bacon, with respect to deformed persons, and eunuchs, that though in general there is some thing of perversity in their character, the disadvantage often leads to extraordinary displays of virtue and excellence. "Whosoever hath anything in his person that doth induce contempt, hath also a perpetual spur in himself, to rescue and deliver himself from scorn." So it would be with them if they were capable of European aspirations;—genius, if they possessed it, would be doubly fired with noble rage to rescue itself from this scorn. Of course I do not mean to say that there may not be found among them some of superior capacity to many white persons; but that great intellectual powers are, perhaps, never found among them, and that in general their capacity is very limited, and their capacity animal and coarse—fitting them society. And why should it not be so? We have among domestic animals infinite varieties, distinguished by various degrees of sagacity, courage, strength, swiftness, and other qualities. And it may be observed, that this is no objection to their being derived from a common origin, which we suppose them to have had. Yet these accidental qualities, as they may be termed, however acquired in the first instance, we know that they transmit unimpaired to their posterity for an indefinite succession of generations. It is most important that these varieties should be preserved, and that each should be applied to the purposes for which it is best adapted. No Philo-zoost, I believe, has suggested it as desirable, that these varieties should be melted down into one equal, undistinguished race of curs or road horses. Slavery, as it is said in an eloquent article published in a southern periodical work,* to which I am indebted for other ideas, "has done more to elevate a degraded race in the scale of humanity; to tame the savage; to civilize the barbarous; to soften the ferocious; to enlighten the ignorant; and to spread the blessings of Christianity among the Heathen, than all the missionaries that philanthropy and religion have ever sent forth." Yet, unquestionable as this is, and though human ingenuity and thought may be tasked in vain to devise any other means by which these blessings could have been conferred, yet a sort of sensibility which would be only mawkish and contemptible, if it were not mischievous, affects still to weep over the wrongs of "injured Africa." Can there be a doubt of the immense benefit which has been conferred on the race, by transplanting them from their native, dark, and barbarous regions, to the American continent and islands? There three-fourths of the race are in a state of the most deplorable personal slavery. And those who are not, are in a scarcely less deplorable condition of political slavery, to barbarous chiefs—who value neither life nor any other human right, or enthralled by priests to the most abject and atrocious superstitions. Take the following testimony of one of the most distinguished observers, who has had an opportunity of observing them in both situations.† "The wild savage is the child of passion, unaided by one ray of religion or morality to direct his course, in consequence of which his existence is stained with every crime that can debase human nature to a level with the brute creation. Who can say that the slaves in our colonies are such? Are they not, by comparison with their still savage brethren, enlightened beings? Is not the West Indian negro, therefore, greatly indebted to his master for making him what he is—for having raised him from the state of debasement in which he was born, and placed him in a scale of civilized society? How can he repay him? He is possessed of nothing—the only return in his power is his servitude. The man who has seen the wild African, roaming in his native woods, and the well-fed, happy-looking negro of the West Indies, may, perhaps, be able to judge of their comparative happiness: the former I strongly suspect would be glad to change his state of boasted freedom, starvation and disease, to become the slave of sinners, and the commiseration of saints." It was a useful and beneficent work, approaching the heroic, to tame the wild horse, and subdue him to the use of man; how much more to tame the nobler animal that is capable of reason, and subdue him to usefulness?

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* Southern Literary Messenger for January, 1835.

† Journal of an officer employed in the expedition under the command of Capt. [illegible], on the Western coast of Africa, 1822.

We believe that the tendency of Slavery is to elevate the character of the master. No doubt the character—especially of youth—has sometimes received a taint and premature knowledge of vice, from the contact and association with ignorant and servile beings of gross manners and morals. Yet still we believe that the entire tendency is to inspire disgust and aversion towards their peculiar vices. It was not without a knowledge of nature, that the Spartans exhibited the vices of slaves by way of negative example to their children. We flatter ourselves that the view of this degradation, mitigated as it is, has the effect of making probity more strict, the pride of character more high, the sense of honor more strong, than is commonly found where this institution does not exist. Whatever may be the prevailing faults or vices of the masters of slaves, they have not commonly been understood to be those of dishonesty, cowardice, meanness, or falsehood. And so most unquestionably it ought to be. Our institutions would indeed be intolerable in the sight of God and man, if, condemning one portion of society to hopeless ignorance and comparative degradation, they should make no atonement by elevating the other class by higher virtues, and more liberal attainments—if, besides degraded slaves, there should be ignorant, ignoble, and degraded freemen. There is a broad and well marked line, beyond which no slavish vice should be regarded with the least toleration or allowance. One class is cut off from all interest in the State—that abstraction so potent to the feelings of a generous nature. The other must make compensation by increased assiduity and devotion to its honor and welfare. The love of wealth—so laudable when kept within proper limits, so base and mischievous when it exceeds them—so infectious in its example—an infection to which, I fear, we have been too much exposed—should be pursued by no arts in any degree equivocal, or at any risk of injustice to others. So surely as there is a just and wise governor of the universe, who punishes the sins of nations and communities, as well as of individuals, so surely shall we suffer punishment, if we are indifferent to that moral and intellectual cultivation of which the means are furnished to us, and to which we are called and incited by our situation.

I would to heaven I could express, as I feel, the conviction how necessary this cultivation is, not only to our prosperity and consideration, but to our safety and very existence. We, the slave-holding states, are in a hopeless minority in our own confederated republic—to say nothing of the great confederacy of civilized states. It is admitted, I believe, not only by slave-holders, but by others, that we have sent to our common councils more than our due share of high character, and eloquence. Yet in spite of all these, most uously exerted measures have been sometimes adopted, which we believed to be dangerous and injurious to us, and threatening to be fatal. What would be our situation, if, instead of these, we were only represented by ignorant and groveling men, incapable of raising their views beyond a job or a petty office, and incapable of commanding hearing or consideration? May I be permitted to advert—by no means invidiously—to the late contest carried on by South-Carolina against Federal authority, and so happily terminated by the moderation which prevailed in our public councils? I have often reflected, what one circumstance, more than any other, contributed to the successful issue of a contest, apparently so hopeless, in which one weak and divided state was arrayed against the whole force of the Confederacy—unsustained and uncountenanced, even by those who had a common interest with her. It seemed to me to be, that we had for leaders an unusual number of men of great intellectual power, co-operating cordially and in good faith, and commanding respect and confidence at home and abroad, by elevated and honorable character. It was from these that we—the followers at home—caught hope and confidence in the gloomiest aspect of our affairs. These, by their eloquence and the largeness of their views, at least shook the faith of the dominant majority in the wisdom and justice of their measures—or the practicability of carrying them into successful effect, and by their bearing and well-known character, satisfied them that South-Carolina would do all that she had pledged herself to do. Without these, how different might have been the result! And who shall say what at this day would have been the aspect of the now flourishing fields and cities of South-Carolina? Or rather without these, it is probable the contest would never have been begun; but that without even the animation of a struggle, we should have sunk silently into a hopeless and degrading subjection. While I have memory—in the extremity of age—in sickness—under all the reverses and calamities of life—I shall have one source of pride and consolation—that of having been associated, according to my humbler position, with the noble spirits who stood prepared to devote themselves for Liberty—the Constitution—the Union. May such character and such talent never be wanting to South-Carolina!

I am sure that it is unnecessary to say to an assembly like this, that the conduct of the master to his slave should be distinguished by the utmost humanity. That we should indeed regard them as wards and dependants on our kindness, for whose well being in every way we are deeply responsible. This is no less the dictate of wisdom and just policy, than of right feeling. It is wise with respect to the services to be expected from them. I have never heard of an owner whose conduct in their management was distinguished by undue severity, whose slaves were not in a great degree worthless to him. A cheerful and kind demeanor, with the expression of interest in themselves and their affairs, is, perhaps, calculated to have a better effect on them, than what might be esteemed more substantial favors and indulgences. Throughout nature, attachment is the reward of attachment. It is wise, too, in relation to the civilized world around us, to avoid giving occasion to the odium which is so industriously excited against ourselves and our institutions. For this reason, public opinion should, if possible, bear even more strongly and indignantly than it does at present, on masters who practise any wanton cruelty on their slaves. The miscreant who is guilty of this, not only violates the law of God and of humanity, but as far as in him lies, by bringing odium upon, endangers the institutions of his country, and the safety of his countrymen. He casts a shade upon the character of every individual of his fellow-citizens, and does every one of them a personal injury. So of him who indulges in any odious excess of intemperate or licentious passion. It is detached instances of this sort, of which the existence is, perhaps, hardly known among ourselves, that, collected with pertinacious and malevolent industry, affords the most formidable weapons to the mischievous zealots, who array them as being characteristic of our general manners and state of society.

I would by no means be understood to intimate, that a vigorous, as well as just government, should not be exercised over slaves. This is part of our duty towards them, no less obligatory than any other duty, and no less necessary towards their well-being than to ours. I believe that at least as much injury has been done and suffering inflicted by weak and injudicious indulgence, as by inordinate severity. He whose business is to labor, should be made to labor, and that with due diligence, and should be vigorously restrained from excess or vice. This is no less necessary to his happiness than to his usefulness. The master who neglects this, not only makes his slaves unprofitable to himself, but discontented and wretched—a nuisance to his neighbors and to society.

I have said that the tendency of our institution is to elevate the female character, as well as that of the other sex, and for similar reasons. In other states of society, there is no well-defined limit to separate virtue and vice. There are degrees of vice, from the most flagrant and odious, to that which scarcely incurs the censure of society. Many individuals occupy an unequivocal position; and as society becomes accustomed to this, there will be a less peremptory requirement of purity in female manners and conduct; and often the whole of the society will be in a tainted and uncertain condition with respect to female virtue. Here, there is that certain and marked line, above which there is no toleration or allowance for any approach to license of manners or conduct, and she who falls below it, will fall far below even the slave. How many will incur this penalty?

And permit me to say, that this elevation of the female character is no less important and essential to us, than the moral and intellectual cultivation of the other sex. It would indeed be intolerable, if, when one class of society is necessarily degraded in this respect, no compensation were made by the superior elevation and purity of the other. Not only essential purity of conduct, but the utmost purity of manners, and, I will add, though it may incur the formidable charge of affectation or prudery,—a greater severity of decorum than is required elsewhere, is necessary among us. Always sho
strenuously resisted the attempts which have been sometimes

to introduce among us the freedom of foreign European, and especially of continental manners. This freedom, the remotest in the world from that which sometimes springs from simplicity of manners, is calculated and commonly intended to confound the outward distinctions of virtue and vice. It is to prepare the way for licentiousness—to produce this effect—that if those who are clothed with the outward color and garb of vice, may be well received by society; those who are actually guilty may hope to be so too. It may be said, that there is often perfect purity where there is very great freedom of manners. And, I have no doubt, this may be true in particular instances, but it is never true of any *society* in which this is the general state of manners. What guards can there be to purity, when every thing that *may possibly* be done innocently, is habitually practised; when there can be no impropriety which is not vice? And what must be the depth of the depravity, when there is a departure from that which they admit as principle? Besides, things which may perhaps be practised innocently where they are familiar, produce a moral dilaceration in the course of their being introduced where they are new. Let us say, we will not have the manners of South-Carolina changed.

I have before said, that free labor is cheaper than the labor of slaves, and so far as it is so, the condition of the free laborer is worse. But I think President Dew has sufficiently shown that this is only true of northern countries. It is matter of familiar remark, that the tendency of warm climates is to relax the human constitution and indispose to labor. The earth yields abundantly—in some regions almost spontaneously—under the influence of the sun, and the means of supporting life are obtained with but slight exertion; and men will use no greater exertion than is necessary to the purpose. This very luxuriance of vegetation, where no other cause concurs, renders the air less salubrious, and even when positive malady does not exist, the health is habitually impaired. Indolence renders the constitution more liable to these effects of the atmosphere, and these again aggravate the indolence. Nothing but the coercion of slavery can overcome the repugnance to labor under these circumstances, and by subduing the soil, improve and render wholesome the climate.

ART. V.—MANUFACTURE OF SUGAR.*

HISTORY—CHRONOLOGICAL AND NATURAL—OF THE SUGAR-CANE, AND OF SUGAR—AGENCIES OF HEAT, LIME, AND IMPURITIES.

In a practical treatise on the sugar manufacture, such as this is intended to be, any extended history, either chronological or natural, of the sugar-cane, and its crystalline product, would be out of place. On these subjects a few general remarks will suffice.

Of all eastern products, sugar appears to have been the latest known, out of the regions wherein it was produced. The chroniclers of ancient Egypt, Phœnicia, and India, make no mention of it; and it did not find its way into Arabia as a commercial article until the eleventh century: soon after which, some adventurous Venetian travelers achieved the introduction of sugar as a commercial article into their metropolis. In Venice the first refineries were established; and hence the name, long prevalent, of *pains de Venise* as referring to loaves of sugar.

Even as regards the sugar-cane, the testimony of ancient authors is exceedingly devoid of precision. The most ancient writer by whom we find the sugar-cane recorded is Theophrastus, (B. C., 321,) who, in his chapter on honey, states as follows:—ὅτι αἱ τοῦ μέλιτος γενέσεις τριτταί. ἡ ἀπὸ τῶν ἄνθων καὶ ἐν οἷς ἄλλοις ἐστιν ἡ γλυκύτης, ἄλλη δὲ ἐκ τοῦ ἀέρος, ὅταν ἀναχυθὲν, ὑγρὸν ἀπὸ τοῦ ἡλίου συνεψηθὲν πέσῃ γίνεται δὲ τοῦτο μάλιστα ὑπὸ πυραμητὸν, ἄλλη δὲ ἐν τοῖς καλάμοις.†

"The generation of honey is threefold: the first is from flowers or other things in which there is sweetness; the second from the air, which, when there are dews, is concocted by the heat of the sun, and falls, particularly in harvest time; the third sort is from canes or reeds."

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* Continued from November number. The following notes were omitted in that number:—

It will be seen, by reference to the formulæ given, that glucose is made up of the elements of (practical) cane sugar, plus the elements of three equivalents of water; hence a rationale is obtained of the facility with which the latter is changed into the former. Indeed, this conversion into glucose, which sugar experiences from slightly disturbing causes, is the first of a long series of destructive readjustments of elements to which sugar is subjected. Any approach to the boiling temperature of a solution of sugar instantly converts a portion of the latter into glucose; a change which is usually expedited by the presence of foreign matters in general, and by none more powerfully than alkalies and alkaline earths. This fact leads to a just appreciation of the great loss incurred by the present mode of colonial sugar manufacture.

I know not why glucose should be termed by some authors uncrystallizable. It crystallizes with great facility in slender needles, diverging from a centre, forming in the aggregate little masses of nodular or granular appearance. It certainly does not form hard crystals, and, in this respect, is very unlike cane-sugar. The term uncrystallizable sugar, as applied to it, is not only improper, but productive of confusion; that term having been applied by Proust, Ann. de Chim. lvii. 131, to a sugar supposed to be liquid under all circumstances and uncrystallizable by any means, to be associated with both sugar of cane and glucose, and accounting, as he thought, for the existence of molasses and treacle.

† De Causis Plant., ed. Heinsii, 1613, p. 475.

Theophrastus, in another place,* mentions a sort of reed, or cane, growing in marshy localities in Egypt, and possessing sweet roots. The passage in question has been understood by some to refer to the sugar-cane; but there are many objections to the correctness of this assumption. The sugar-cane is not an aquatic plant, neither are its roots so sweet as its stem. Moreover, if it really had existed in Egypt, there were certainly those who would have chronicled the circumstance with more precision than we find in the above vague expression of Theophrastus.

If we are to rely upon the testimony of Strabo, in his history of India, written about the nineteenth year of the Christian era, Nearchus, the admiral of Alexander the Great, about 300 years before Christ, not only saw the sugar-cane in India, but was aware that a substance resembling honey (sugar) could be extracted from it. But, if the statement were true, the sugar-cane would seem to have remained very uncommon, and sugar still more so, seeing that Seneca and Lucan, who lived in the time of Nero, (A. D. 62,) adverted to the sugar-cane and to sugar in language so ambiguous and obscure— that some authorities have even doubted whether another plant and another substance might not have been intended. Seneca, in his 84th Epistle, has the following passage:—

"Aiunt inveniri apud Indos, mel in harundinarum foliis, quod aut ros illius cœli aut ipsius harundinis humor dulcis, et pignior gignat. In nostris quoque herbis, vim eandam, sed minus manifestam et notabilem, poni quam prosequatur et contrahat animal huic rei genitum."

Lucan, treating of the Indians near the Ganges, writes:—

"Quique bibunt tenera dulces ab arundine succos."

After Seneca and Lucan, Pliny is the next author of repute who adverted to the sugar-cane. This was about the year 78, A. D. Subsequently to which period, and until the latter end of the dark ages, such little testimony as can be found relative to the sugar-cane and sugar is far too vague and unsatisfactory to merit attention.

To the crusades we probably are indebted for disseminating in Europe such a knowledge of the sugar-cane, and its crystallized product, as caused the speedy introduction of both into this quarter of the globe. The sturdy warriors of the cross, on their return to the west, began to desire many oriental luxuries for which they had acquired a taste. An oriental commerce was speedily established, and Venice became the great emporium of the riches of the east:—Of these, sugar was one.

Between the twelfth and fifteenth centuries the sugar-cane was cultivated in Sicily, the south of Spain, and indeed in many other Mediterranean regions. In the south of France, also, the culture of this plant was tried, but without success; the climate proving too uncertain, or too cold. In the Canary Isles, however, the cane culture was most productive, as was also the manufacture of sugar. These islands, in fact, continued to supply civilized Europe with the greater portion of her saccharine produce until the discovery of the West India Islands by the Spaniards, in 1492; and the maritime discovery of India by the Portuguese, opened newer and more congenial soils to the production of the tender crop.

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* De Causis Plant., lib. vi. c. 16, ed. Heinsii.

Much controversy has existed on the question, whether the sugar-cane were, or were not, indigenous to the new world. At the present epoch it would be impossible to determine this point, so much has the subject been involved by lapse of time and incapacity of the earlier historians. Fortunately the matter, so far as concerns practice, is of no importance whatsoever. Suffice it to know that the West India Islands, almost immediately subsequent to their discovery, began to supply civilized Europe with large quantities of sugar, and the less fertile fields of southern Europe soon fell into desuetude.

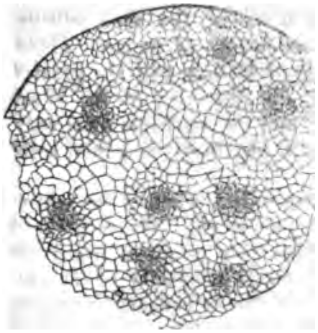
During a long series of years, the West India Islands produced sugar for the greater portion of the civilized world, and created large stores of wealth to the proprietors of their soil. At present, unfortunately, this condition of things exists no longer. The culture of the sugar-cane has now become extended over most tropical, and some temperate regions. To oriental nations, sugar—generally in its impure condition—is an article of daily food. The Chinese use it in profusion; so do the natives of Siam,—a country which, perhaps better than any other, is adapted to the successful produce of the sugar-cane. Throughout the whole of India, sugar is not only a common food for man, but immense quantities of the impure varieties of produce, called *Jaggery*,—are given to elephants. The amount of sugar capable of being produced by scientific processes of manufacture, from the canes and the palm-tribe of India, may be so vastly increased, that it would be difficult to assign any limitation. The native processes of sugar extraction in India are so rude, and so destructive, that it may safely be asserted that 75 per cent. of the sugar existing in the juice operated upon is entirely destroyed in obtaining the remainder!

With regard to the natural history of the sugar-cane, very few remarks will suffice.

Botanists divide the vegetable world into phanerogamous or flowering, and cryptogamic or flowerless plants. With the latter we have no concern.

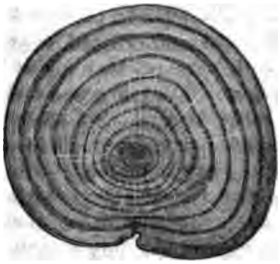
Flowering plants are again divided into *exogenous plants*, or such as acquire increase of structure during growth by the deposition of external layers of tissue; and *endogenous plants*, or those which grow by depositions of tissue within the substance of their stem.

In temperate climes there are no large productions of the vegetable kingdom which belong to the endogenous class, all its representatives being of most humble growth. The grasses, for instance, are endogenous; and some of our larger grasses, as the wheat or barley, may be taken as the type of the endogenous vegetable produce in temperate regions.



It is in vain, however, to examine in the stem of our humble grasses, for palpable indications of the endogenous mode of growth. For this purpose a section of some tropical endogen,—the bamboo, or sugar-cane, for example,—should be made. This section, if carefully examined, will clearly indicate the prominent feature in the structure of an endogenous plant.

It will be seen that there is no appearance of concentric rings, indicative each of a year's growth, but the whole cellular and vascular structure forms one confused mass.



For the purpose of fully appreciating the difference between an exogenous and an endogenous stem, the cane section may be compared with another of oak or hazel.

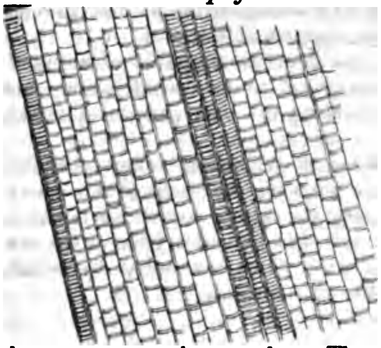
The difference between the two will be now marked; here the indications of peripheral depositions of tissue are so clear, each deposition corresponding with one summer, that, by counting the number of existing rings, the age of the exogenous plant may frequently be told. Besides the difference of the mode of growth between endogenous and exogenous grasses, a difference on which are founded the distinctive terms of botanical arrangement, there exist others no less invariable, and well marked. All exogenous plants are provided with reticulated leaves, whilst the leaves of all endogenous plants are merely traversed by straight veins; this distinction will be well appreciated on making a comparison between an oak leaf and a leaf of barley or wheat.

Again, all exogenous plants possess a well-defined bark, wood, and pith; whilst in endogenous plants no such defined arrangement exists; —one part merging into the other by insensible gradations. Other distinctions between endogenous and exogenous plants there are, but they belong exclusively to the province of the botanist. If the stem of any of our larger grasses be examined, it will be found incrusted with a hard brilliant coating. This is no less than silica or flint, as may easily be demonstrated by various means. If, for example, a straw be dexterously acted upon by the flame of a blow-pipe,—the silica fusing with the potash naturally existing in all land vegetables—there will result a beautifully transparent bead of glass. On a larger scale this production of glass from the same source is occasionally found amongst the debris of burnt hay or corn stacks. I have seen a lump of glass produced in this way, and weighing several pounds.

The sugar-cane is—botanically considered—a gigantic grass; and the siliceous covering so sparingly developed in grasses of the temperate zone, here acquires so palpable a thickness, that small portions of such can easily be chipped off, either from the sugar-cane or the bamboo.

A horizontal, or transverse section, of the stem of the sugar-cane, if examined under the microscope, is seen to consist of a series of hexagonal cells in close juxtaposition. They are formed of a delicate tissue, which incloses them on all sides, in such a manner that each cell is altogether separated from the others to which it is contiguous. This structure is called the cellular structure, and is intermixed with another structure called the vascular, by which the nourishment for the plant's support is absorbed and circulated. (See cut, 628.)

Although it has been said that endogenous plants possess no *defined* bark, and the sugar-cane is no exception to the rule, yet this plant has a kind of pellicle, or rind; not separable, it is true, from the trunk, but indicated by its greenish color, which depends on a portion of the general coloring matter of leaves, to which chemists apply the denomination *chlorophylle.*



The arrangement of vessels and cells already described, as observed in a transverse section of the cane, will be still more fully comprehended by reference to a longitudinal section, a diagram of which is annexed. By reference to this diagram, which represents a longitudinal section of the cane at the point where a knot is formed, it will be seen that, in addition to the cellular structure already described, there is another structure—the vascular. The use of the latter is to minister to the circulation of the plant, hence the vessels contain the crude sap of the cane, which may be assumed to resemble very nearly the sap of plants in general, and which is, therefore, a very complex fluid: a circumstance very necessary to be borne in mind, as will hereafter be recognized.

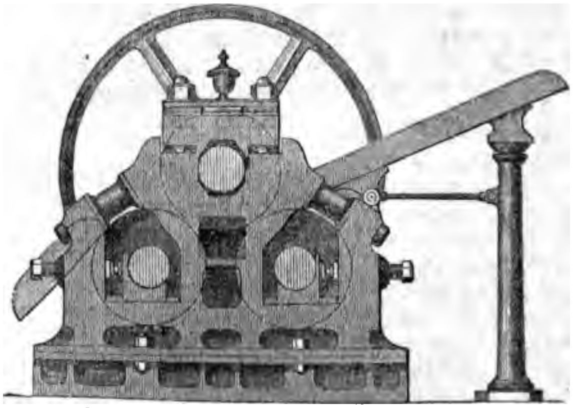
With respect to the hexagonal cells,—microscopic experiments have demonstrated that they contain a fluid which is little else than pure sugar dissolved in pure water. The problems to be solved, therefore, are either to extract the matter of the cells alone, or to express all succulent matter from the canes, and afterwards to effect a separation between the sugar and its accompanying impurities. The first indication seems most philosophical, and it is one which a chemist in his laboratory would prefer to follow out. Taking advantage of the property which albuminous matters possess of coagulating on the application of heat, and remembering that such matters constitute the larger portion of the crude sap of the sugar-cane, the laboratory chemist would proceed by slicing his cane, drying the slices in a proper stove, and washing out the contained sugar by means of alcohol. Even without alcohol he could succeed in obtaining a good result, hot water being a menstruum scarcely less eligible for effecting the solution; for albumen, when coagulated by heat, is no longer soluble in water.

Thus, at a first glance, the problem appears solved, even as regards the large scale; but a slight analysis of facts soon demonstrates the contrary. The first difficulty is one that would scarcely be imagined *à priori*. It is difficult, if not impossible, to use any slicing machine that shall not very speedily become blunted by the hard siliceous covering of the canes. Once blunted, the first object of the operation is lost; instead of a clean cut we have a bruise, and the saccharine cellular juice mingles with the sap: the grand objection to the usual squeezing of the mill obtains, without any of the mill's advantages. Then, how are sliced canes to be stove-dried in large quantities? Where is the necessary amount of hot water to come from? Where the fuel necessary to evaporate so dilute a solution as must result if the sugar be thoroughly washed out?

All these are practical questions, which the planter would do well to answer to himself, before making arrangements for the carrying out of this very philosophical, but impracticable scheme.

Discarding the first of the two problems as incapable of a practicable solution, the second presents itself to our consideration; but as a preliminary, a few words concerning the mill and its operation will be desirable.

The sugar-mill consists of a series of cylindrical rollers, usually three, between which the canes are pressed; the result of this operation is obviously to extrude not only the sugar—containing liquid in the hexagonal cells—but also the complex vegetable juice of the vascular tissue, and also a portion of wax, which is secreted by certain little glands on the periphery of the cane nodules.



— HOWLANDS

Hence, cane juice, or the fluid of expression, is a fluid of very complex nature; being made up of a great number of mineral salts, and of so many vegetable principles, that no perfectly trustworthy analysis of it is as yet recorded.

In a treatise which aims solely at being a guide to practice, it would savour of pedantry to expatiate on analyses which do not further the object to be kept in view. Without, therefore, entering minutely into the chemistry of cane juice, it will be sufficient for all practical purposes to consider, first, that it is made up of sugar, water, and impurities; and, secondly, that the prevailing or typical impurity is albumen.

Such is the fluid on which practical necessities oblige us to operate: and now the second problem is fairly before us for solution;—namely, to extract all succulent matter from the canes, and to effect a separation between the sugar and its accompanying impurities.

This separation must be effected beyond a certain extent, or the sugar existing in the cane juice obstinately refuses to crystallize on being evaporated; a circumstance not peculiar to sugar alone, but of almost universal occurrence in all parallel cases.

Thus, the juice of limes and lemons contains a large amount of citric acid; a body which, though easily crystallizable out of an aqueous solution, obstinately refuses to crystallize until a great part of its associated vegetable impurities is removed. The method of this removal I need not describe, as it does not in the least resemble any of the processes which will effect the purification of cane juice. The object to be gained, however, in either case, is identical.

Considering that the leading impurity in cane juice is albumen, and considering that albumen coagulates by heat—it might have been theoretically inferred, that a mere heating of the cane juice to a temperature sufficiently elevated to coagulate the albumen, would have left the sugar in a solution of sufficient purity to admit of crystallization: experiments, however, have demonstrated that such is not the fact, and have proved the necessity of adding to the juice some material endowed with a chemical potency of effecting a greater separation of impurities than is possible by heat alone. The usual agent employed for this purpose is lime,—the mode of operation of which will be fully detailed hereafter.

We now arrive at a most important division of our subject; we have to examine closely into the changes which sugar is made to undergo by the combined agency of heat, impurities, and lime.

This will be best accomplished by leaving for a period the consideration of cane juice, and by substituting for it a solution of pure sugar and pure water. This pure solution will be the starting point of all remarks on the more complex case, and will enable the following important agencies to be contemplated in detail; whereas in the actual colonial operation on cane juice they operate simultaneously. We shall have to study—

1. The changes effected on solutions of sugar in water by heat alone.

2. The changes effected on the same by the united agencies o
and lime.

3. The changes effected on solutions of sugar, water, and impurities, by heat and lime, (the colonial operation.)

This important investigation will be approached with the greatest advantage by an examination of the phenomena attendant on the crystallization, from a menstruum of some body which is not capable of decomposition by the agency of heat.

For this purpose no substance is better than common nitre. If a portion of this substance, dissolved in water, were given to an operator with the object of evaporating away all the water of solution, and leaving the whole of the salt unchanged, this could easily be effected. The operator would simply have to apply heat to the solution, and the desired result would speedily be achieved. Whatever the amount of heat applied, no injury would occur to the salt, which would be found gradually incrusting the evaporating dish; and, by carrying on the process of evaporation to a sufficient extent, the whole of the nitre would be left dry. Under the circumstances, however, of rapid evaporation detailed, the salt would assume an imperfectly crystalline state; indeed, the chances are that no crystals would be visible.

Were the object to obtain the nitre in perfect crystals, the evaporation should be modified thus:—The evaporation should be stopped short at a certain point, and the hot liquid allowed to cool—the result of which cooling would be the formation of well-defined crystals. A portion of the liquor of solution, however, would still remain uncrystallized, until drawn off and subjected to a process of re-evaporation; when another crop of crystals would be formed, and another quantity of uncrystallized but crystallizable liquor would remain.

Upon the latter, the processes of reboiling and crystallizing might be repeated, until the total expenditure of the liquor of drainage; and with the result of obtaining literally the whole of the nitre employed—and crystallized, too; up to the period when the diminished amount of liquid to be evaporated and drained, furnished so small a mass, that the gradual cooling and perfect drainage, so essential to the production of good crystals, were conditions no longer under control.

The reader will have anticipated my coming remark, that this liquor of drainage stands in the same *mechanical* relation to nitre, that molasses does to sugar. Beyond this mechanical relation, however, the analogy ends—as will be presently made known. If, instead of nitre and water, a solution of pure sugar in pure water be taken, and treated according to the scheme just indicated, the results are as follow:

A portion of sugar crystallizes; but, instead of being white, as it was when dissolved, the crystals will have assumed a yellow tint, and the syrup of drainage will be more or less coloured. If this syrup be collected and evaporated, there will result another produce of crystalline sugar still more yellow than the first, and the liquor of drainage from this second product will also have acquired a much darker colour than its parallel in the first operation. Proceeding in this way, there is at length a period arrived at, when the liquor of drainage becomes a dark-coloured viscid mass, incapable of crystallizing at all.

Thus, according to testimony of this experiment, it is impossible to extract, by the evaporative process (at least when heat is applied), the total amount of pure sugar dissolved in a quantity of pure water; a portion of such sugar being destroyed, and converted into a dark product.

If this operation had been conducted on a solution of sugar—not in pure water, but admixed with impurities of various kinds, such as coexist with the sugar in cane-juice; had the case been still more involved by the addition of a foreign agent, such as lime,—the experimentalist might have imagined the destruction of sugar just indicated to be exclusively due to the agency of the collateral bodies: an explanation which is obviously inapplicable to the conditions just detailed. Indeed, the experiment of Professor Soubeiran, heretofore mentioned, sets all doubt at rest on this point.

The agency of heat alone being proved sufficient to effect a certain destruction upon a solution of pure sugar in water, it is an important point to determine the lowest amount of heat which is thus injurious; and whether a process of evaporation can be devised, which shall not overstep that limit of temperature where the injury first commences.

In the laboratory, a chemist easily solves the problem; indeed, it involves a process which he very constantly applies to effect the evaporation or desiccation of many bodies,—so delicate in their nature, that a slight artificial temperature would subject them to decomposition.

The chemist would proceed by taking advantage of the fact, that to produce evaporation the removal of atmospheric pressure is equivalent in effect to the application of artificial heat. He, therefore, would put under the receiver of an air-pump a shallow saucer, containing oil of vitriol; over which he would place, on a convenient support, a dish containing the sugar solution. A vacuum being now produced, the water of the solution would commence to be evolved as vapor; and this vapor would be immediately absorbed by the oil of vitriol. Thus, without any further working of the pump, a tendency to a vacuum would be kept up, until the sugar would have become dry, crystallized, and chemically unchanged.

I need not say that this process of evaporation is totally unadapted to any commercial case of sugar manufacture. A compromise, however, between two conditions, has been effected by the vacuum pan, (an instrument hereafter to be described,) which enables sugar solutions to be boiled in commercial quantities, under the joint circumstances of a partial vacuum, and a great diminution of temperature. The lowest practical temperature at which I have ever seen a vacuum pan worked is 135°; a temperature which I would, therefore, consider the practical minimum, but which is sufficient to effect a certain amount of destruction on sugar solutions.

Having recognized the fact, that the lowest practicable degree heat for effecting the evaporation of sugar solutions, is sufficient itself to produce a certain amount of destruction—it now remains to be shown how much this amount of destruction is increased, by the concomitant agency of lime, and impurities.

Proceeding in the demonstration systematically, I will assume a portion of white sugar to be dissolved in water, admixed with lime, and then boiled. If this operation be performed, the eye alone will recognize the fact, that a destructive process supervenes to a far greater extent than when a mere solution of sugar and water, without the addition of lime, was employed. Not only does the fluid become dark with increased rapidity, but it exhales a newly developed smell, indicative of some process of decomposition effected upon the sugar. If, moreover, the crystallization of the limed liquid be attempted, a further proof of destruction will be manifest in the increased amount of non-crystallizable material, which leaks away from the crystallized mass.

These are but rough indications of the injury to which sugar is exposed when solutions containing it are heated in combination with lime—indications which are so visible to all who have seen the operation performed, that there exists not a sugar producer, so far as my experience goes, who does not fully recognize the powerfully destructive agency of this alkaline earth. Nay, in the absence of other testimony, the multitude of contrivances which have, from time to time, been introduced to public notice, with the express intention of either diminishing indefinitely the amount of lime to be used, or of reducing the quantity to some definite standard—would be ample evidence in support of the position, that lime is commonly recognized to be a most destructive agent on sugar.

The minute chemistry of the agency of lime on sugar solutions, would be somewhat out of place here. So much of this agency as is necessary for the guidance of a practical sugar manufacturer has already been given in other parts of this treatise.

Having successively examined the agency of heat on a pure solution of sugar and water,—and on the same with admixture of lime; we have next to investigate the complex changes which occur during the treatment by heat of sugar solutions mixed with vegetable impurities and lime.

That the cases selected may be consecutively demonstrative, I will suppose the experimentalist to contaminate a portion of pure sugar and water with some raw vegetable juice—that of raw parsnips, for example. Thus contaminated, the solution will be amenable to a new series of chemical decompositions of greatly increased complexity; of which the following are the most remarkable, and of greatest practical value, to be well understood, and remembered.

The first great influence exerted on sugar solutions by the presence of raw vegetable juices generally, is that of causing various fermentations. Thus, although solutions of pure sugar in water may be allowed to remain exposed to temperatures most conducive to fermentation for days, and even weeks, without any perceptible effect of this kind, yet the addition of very small quantities of these raw vegetable juices causes them, under the same circumstances, readily to assume fermentations accompanied by the destruction of sugar and the formation of lactic acid, mannite, glucose, alcohol, acetic acid, and many other derivative bodies.

This factitious juice, made up of sugar, water, and the juice of raw parsnips, presents a very near analogy to the juice of beetroots, from which sugar may be extracted—and offers no very remote resemblance to sugar-cane juice itself; many chemical properties of which liquids may be correctly studied on this factitious compound.

If a portion of this compound saccharine juice be evaporated with all care, and with the view of effecting its crystallization,—the labor will be in vain. Until some of the impurities, at least, are separated, no crystallization will ensue.

If this factitious juice be a true practical representation of cane and other sugar-containing juices, it is quite evident, that the experiments cited have demonstrated the positive necessity of separating a considerable portion, at least, of the accompanying vegetable impurities, as a preliminary to obtaining the sugar in a crystalline form. Hence the following proposition is at once brought before us:—*Given, a mixed solution, of sugar, water, and impurities—how practically to separate all but the sugar, with the least expense, and the least delay.*

This is the grand problem, upon the perfect solution of which every advance towards perfection in the manufacture of sugar hinges.

As the usual agent employed in sugar-growing countries, for effecting this separation of impurities from raw sugar-containing juices—is lime, employed in some manner or other, it will be proper, in this place, to examine its agency on the factitious juice.

If, then, a portion of the juice be admixed with a portion of lime, (rubbed with water into the condition of cream, for convenience of employment,) and then heated, the following changes will be seen to occur.

When the heat has been pushed to the extent of 180° Fahr., a black crust of impurities will be seen to have collected on the surface of the juice, from which it may be skimmed off,—leaving the subnatant liquid comparatively clear and bright, but much deeper colored than it was originally.

If this fluid, thus freed from the scum thrown up by the agency of lime, be now evaporated down to the proper degree, crystallization will be effected;—and substituting cane-juice for the factitious juice, here assumed to have been employed, the reader will have had brought before his notice the exact conditions of sugar boiling in the colonies.

Although in the preceding experiment the scum might have been removed from the juice treated with lime, so soon as the temperature arrived at 180° Fahr.; although the subnatant liquor might then appear to the eye perfectly clear and bright—yet it is not difficult to prove, by many different kinds of evidence, that this brightness or clearness of the liquor is a most fallacious sign of its purity. The first evidence to this effect, is the very strong one, that fresh coats of scum continually arise as the evaporative process goes on—a result which never happens in solutions of pure sugar and water. A second mical tests, which are known to be endowed with the power of throwing down vegetable impurities. The acetates of lead are agents of this kind.

Thus far, the agency of lime has been demonstrated to be defective; but the worst has yet to be told. Even conceding, for the sake of argument, that there is a certain theoretical relation between a definite amount of vegetable impurities and the quantity of lime necessary for effecting its removal (which is not the case), still this relation would vary for almost every sample of juice; and no amount of care, or talent, or appliances, could accomplish this exact apportionment. The manufacturer would, therefore, even under this assumption—the one most favorable to the employment of lime—be continually obliged either to choose between adding too little of that agent, or too much; actual neutralization by apportionment being amongst the most difficult of laboratory operations, and one totally impracticable on a large scale. A few remarks will be necessary here, relative to the assertion, that no theoretical relation *does* exist between the quantity of lime and the quantity of impurities to be separated. It will be intelligible when we consider that the removal of impurities effected by lime is not one of *combination*, but one of *determination*, and hence is influenced by such varying conditions of heat, density, solution, and other circumstances, that to calculate the chemical resultant of so many conflicting forces would be an impossibility. On this point the following may be taken as a practical exemplification. If a pint of cane-juice, under the proper conditions of temperature, be treated with ten grains of lime, a scum will form; which, if separated by filtration, or otherwise, a clear, though high-colored, fluid will result. If this fluid be now examined for lime, considerable quantities of it will be discovered by the proper chemical tests for that alkaline earth; a fact which might lead to the inference, if not checked by other observations, that more lime had been employed than was absolutely necessary for the separation of the impurities present.

Nevertheless, it can be proved most unequivocally, by chemical tests (the acetates of lead, for example,) that not merely a large amount, but the *greatest amount*, of the original impurities still remains. This testing operation demonstrates, that there is not even a theoretical relation between the amount of impurities present, and the amount of lime most proper to effect their separation; because the agency of lime is indirect, not direct—because it does not effect any separation by *combination*, but by *determination*. To place this matter in the strongest point of view, the following case may be cited:—

If sixty-three parts by weight, exactly, of ordinary crystallized oxalic acid,* were to be dissolved in water, and if it were required only to separate the oxalic acid absolutely by means of lime, without employing more than the amount required of the latter agent, the problem would be solved with the greatest ease. Every tyro in chemistry knows, that for effecting this separation, twenty-eight parts by weight, *exactly*, of lime, would be the proper quantity; which being added, a solid and insoluble combination of the lime and the oxalic acid would result—would deposit; and the remaining liquid would be water absolutely pure.

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* It is necessary to be precise in this expression. There are two substances known as crystallized oxalic acid, both of which are really combinations of oxalic acid with water. The ordinary crystallized oxalic acid is composed of one equivalent of real or dry oxalic acid, and three of water; and the other of

If the impurities which contaminate cane-juice, and other natural sugar-containing juices, assumed the tendency of forming a direct, invariable, and determinate power of combination with lime, an exact theoretical relation between the relative quantities of the two, necessary for effecting combination and separation, would exist; but as such theoretical relation is totally opposed to the actual conditions, the arguments founded upon the contrary assumption fall to the ground.

If we cursorily pass in review the experiments detailed in this chapter, with the object of eliciting from them their legitimate deduction, we shall be led to the following important facts:—

That impure or crude sugar-containing juices refuse to crystallize, until a large portion of their accompanying impurities has been removed; that, moreover, such juices are very prone to undergo fermentation; hence the removal of such impurities is of the first importance. That lime will effect the removal of such an amount of the impurities as will admit of subsequent crystallization. That it is impossible to add lime in such a manner that some of this agent shall not remain. Hence, that even under the most favorable supposition—namely, that the use of lime has removed all impurities—(which is not the case)—still, the resulting liquor will not be sugar and water, but a mixture of sugar, water and lime.

But it has been demonstrated, that if a solution of sugar, water, and lime be boiled together, the sugar is rapidly destroyed. Hence, it follows, that lime, when used as a purifying or defecating agent for crude sugar-containing juices, is, under any circumstances, a most destructive agent, and that some better agent is a desideratum.

It will have been clearly indicated, moreover, that any rational attempt to limit the injurious agency of lime, will be in the direction, not of primarily apportioning the amount of lime to be used, but of separating, by some agent not injurious to sugar, all excess of the agent which may remain in the cleared or defecated liquor. This, so far as I am aware, is an impossibility.* Moreover, if there be ques-

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one equivalent of real or dry acid, and one of water. Dry oxalic acid has never been obtained, although it may be caused to unite with certain bases, and thus be demonstrated to exist. In the experiment above cited, it exchanges its water for lime, with which it unites. The expression, dry crystallized oxalic acid, is absurd.

* That is to say, in practice—on the small scale, and by the exercise of great care, lime may be separated with such exactitude, even by oxalic acid, that the sugar shall not be perceptibly injured. But a still better plan cons[illegible] use of sulphurous acid, under circumstances which, having not[illegible] 1848, I caused to be printed in the summer of that year, and have [illegible] taught in the laboratory.

tion of separating any excess of defecating agent, the practical chemist will turn his attention to an agent of far greater efficacy, as a defecator, than lime—an agent which long since would have been employed in the sugar manufacture, if any means for separating it had been known.

In detailing the prominent effect of the agency of lime on sugar solutions, both pure and mixed, I have purposely avoided all chemical remarks as to the rationale of this agency, from the conviction that they would little avail the practical sugar producer. In point of fact, the agencies thus brought into play are so multifarious, so complex, or so ill understood, that even a full recapitulation of all that is known on the subject would be of but little use.

The general rationale of the agency of lime on pure solutions of sugar and water may be grasped by remembering—that sugar is a body of acid reaction; hence, that it readily combines with bases; that under the agency of lime and heat it readily yields glucose, which substance is also possessed of an acid quality. Finally, that glucose, under the prolonged action of lime and heat, rapidly changes into glucic, melasinic, sacchulmic, and sacchumic acids, besides many other imperfectly known bodies.

The action of lime and heat on the impurities existing in sugar-containing juices, is referable to the property which albumen and several other organic bodies assume, of becoming to some degree insoluble, when they are exposed to incipient destruction.

Thus, all that can be stated on this point amounts to the simple expression of the fact, that lime determines the separation of a certain amount of the impurities existing in crude sugar solutions.

One important remark, however, relating to the use of lime as a defecatory agent, cannot be too strongly impressed upon the sugar grower. It is this—that whatever the rationale of the employment of lime, in the sugar-boiling operation on raw juices may be, it is certainly not that, as is frequently stated, of neutralizing acidity. The term acidity is here to be understood in a general sense, as relating to such acids as the acetic and lactic. In strict chemical language, the term acid is extended even to sugar itself. Were there no greater necessity for using lime than this, it is clear that chalk would be a most efficient substitute; for whilst it would be equally potent with lime in neutralizing acidity, it could be employed in any quantity without fear of injury. The agency of lime on solutions of Muscovado, or other impure sugar and water, has purposely been omitted here, inasmuch as it will be discussed with the greatest propriety under the head of refining. It is well to remark, however, that there is no similarity between the kind of impurities existing in raw juices and those in colored sugars. The former chiefly consist of albuminous bodies natural to the juices; the latter of glucose, glucic, melasinic, sacchulmic and sacchumic acids, generated by the action of heat and lime on sugar.

PROGRESS OF AMERICAN CITIES.

1.—CINCINNATI.

We are indebted to that valuable sheet, the Cincinnati Prices Current, for the following statistics of that rapidly growing emporium of the North-West.

BUSINESS, 1849-50.

The prospects were generally favorable for a season of prosperity at the commencement of the commercial year, which has just closed, and but for the failure of the wheat crop, in the central Western States in 1849, and the re-appearance of cholera during the present summer, the expectations then entertained would have been more than realized. But notwithstanding the serious drawbacks alluded to, business may be said to have been good throughout the year, and although trade could not at any time be said to be very active, yet the state of the markets was generally healthy, and the tendency of prices was such, that importers and jobbers, as well as produce merchants generally, realized fair profits on their general sales. There was but a comparatively small speculative business transacted in any of our leading staples, and most of the operations of the year having been characterized by prudence, the mercantile community have well sustained their credit; and while in the Eastern cities some heavy failures have taken place, we have had scarcely a stoppage to announce, and we may safely say that the new year is entered upon with unusually flattering prospects.

GRAIN TRADE.

In referring to the failure of the wheat crop, in the central Western States, in our last annual remarks, we stated that the crop would not much exceed one-third of an average yield. On referring to the receipts of flour at the several Western outlets, during the past year, we find that we were correct in our estimate, for although the receipts at this port and New-Orleans, show a deficiency of only about one-half, yet it must be recollected that the comparatively high prices current in the Western and Southern markets, attracted supplies from the Northern Lakes, which in ordinary years, found their outlet at New-York, and also, that there was a considerable stock of surplus wheat in the West, at the in-coming of the crops of 1849, while this season, the country was almost entirely bare when the new wheat was brought into market. In remarking on the prospect for prices, we stated that the full supplies in the Eastern markets, and the great falling off in the foreign demand, which we predicted would be experienced, would keep the market in check, and prevent prices from reaching the high point to which many, at the commencement of the year supposed, they would be carried. In the Western markets, however, flour commanded a higher price than we had supposed would be realized, and we find that the average price of the past year is $4 75, while that for 1848-9, was only $3 78. In the Eastern markets the range of prices was only about fifty cents per bbl. higher than last year, and frequently the rates current here were as high as those obtainable in New-York. In our remarks, relative to a probable falling off in the European demand for breadstuffs, we were entirely correct, as will be seen by the following figures, which show the amount exported from the United States to foreign ports, from Sept. 1, 1849, to about the 10th of August ultimo:

	Flour, bbls.	Meal, bbls.	Corn, bush.	Wheat, bush.
1849-50	392,742	6,086	4,813,373	432,939
1848-49	1,056,431	81,344	12,536,758	1,077,585
Decrease	663,689	75,258	7,723,385	634,546

It is seen that the United States contributed little to supply Great Britain with breadstuffs during the past year, and the facts show that we ca any considerable demand from that country, while her own crops, Continental Europe, are even moderately good, unless at prices that would not remunerate our farmers for the labor necessary to the production of the grain.

On the first of September, 1849, it was generally supposed that the yield of corn in the West would be unusually heavy, and we so stated in our report, and remarked that it would make up, to a considerable extent, for the deficiency in the yield of wheat. The crop, however, instead of being heavy, did not prove to be even an average yield, and, as a consequence, prices ruled high throughout the year, and in order to supply the demand, the stocks in the country have been greatly reduced, and there will be but a small surplus to go over to the new season.

It is proper that we should in this connection, make a few remarks relative to the reversals in trade, caused by the failure of the crops in the Western States, as the experience of the past may prove valuable in future seasons. The high prices current in the West and South, diverted the trade in flour from its ordinary channels. This market was supplied, to some extent, from Cleveland, Buffalo and Pittsburgh, and there was an entire suspension of shipments of flour Eastward, from points North of this place, on the Miami and Erie canal. To St. Louis large quantities of flour were sent from the Northern lakes through the Illinois canal, and thence to New-Orleans. This diversion of supplies, rendered practicable by the opening of various channels of communication, kept prices in check, and proved of great advantage to consumers situated in the sections of country that suffered most from deficient supplies. Towards the close of the season heavy shipments were made from the Eastern seaboard to New-Orleans, but these, without an exception, proved unprofitable, and several lots were sent back to New-York and Boston markets. The experience of the past season, in this respect, shows how easy a matter it is, with our various channels of intercommunication, to distribute supplies, and that while supplies in one section are ample, the other cannot suffer materially from exorbitantly high prices.

We will close these general remarks with a few observations relative to the prospects for the year we have entered upon. The whole country has been blest this season with a most abundant wheat crop. The aggregate yield, it is believed, is larger than ever before, and it is generally supposed that the stock now in the country, notwithstanding the small surplus of old wheat, is larger than in any season since 1845. This leads many to look for very low prices during the ensuing year, but it is not probable that prices will reach an unusually low point until towards the close of the season, and not then unless the prospects for the next harvest should be again favorable. There are several reasons for this conclusion: the first, and chief of which is, that farmers will not sell at low prices, unless necessitated to, and the present condition of most of them is such, that they can afford to hold their grain for some time. Another reason is, that when prices are low, the consumption is generally heavy. The advices from Europe state that there is a fair prospect for good crops of grain in Great Britain, but in France, unfavorable weather is interfering seriously with harvest operations. It is probable, however, that Europe will have within herself, a fair supply of breadstuffs, but, notwithstanding, we think there will be an increased demand for our produce, as prices here will certainly be moderately low, and the potato crop in England and Ireland, will prove a partial, if not an almost total failure. There will, therefore, as we may reasonably expect, be an increased demand abroad, and during the continuance of low prices, there will be a disposition on the part of exporters, to operate.

HOGS.

Relative to the market for hogs, we remarked that the information we then had, warranted the belief that there would be an increase in all the Western States. The accuracy of our statement was generally disputed, until the season for packing had closed, and the receipts of the products at the outlets, showed that we were correct. At some of the principal packing points, there was a falling off, but there was an increased business done in the interior, as shown by subsequent receipts therefrom. In regard to prices, we stated, that notwithstanding the low rates talked of during the summer, the market would probably open between $2 50 and $3; and on referring to the reports, we find that the opening price was $2 61, and the average price for the first month of the season, was $2 65.

Our advices, relative to the number of hogs that will probably be ready for the block the approaching season, are not sufficiently general to enable us to express an opinion as to the supply in the whole West, but from Ohio and Kentucky, and portions of Indiana, we have information to warrant us in saying, that in these states there will be a deficiency From the assessors' returns of the hogs assessed in thirty counties in this state, we learn that there is a falling off in every county heard from, and upon these returns we base an estimate that there will be a deficiency in the whole state, of two hundred and fifty thousand head. Should prices rule high, this deficiency may be reduced by fattening hogs that were not assessed, being under six months old in April; but unless these can be made ready for the block, by feeding upon *new* corn, it is not probable that it will be done to any extent, as the stock of old corn is everywhere very light, and where convenient to a market, it will command more money in the ear than would be likely to be realized from it by feeding it to hogs. From Kentucky, or Indiana, we have no *official* information relative to the number of hogs, but it is known that in both those states there is a scarcity of corn, and as it is known that without corn there cannot be hogs, it is reasonable to infer, that the supply of the latter will be lessened to some extent by the deficiency in the crop of the former. In other Western states there has been for several years a steady, and during the last two years, a rapid increase in the hog business, and Missouri, Iowa and Illinois will soon occupy the most prominent places among the hog raising states of the Union. The railroads and canals of Ohio and Indiana have brought the lands, in almost every portion of the states, practically so near to markets, that farmers generally can do as well, and sometimes better, by selling their corn, than by feeding hogs on an extensive scale. This will continue to drive the business West, to states more remote from market. From the Western states alluded to, we have no reliable information; but as a fact, not favorable to any increase in number, we may state that in those states, or in the portions bordering on the rivers, corn is comparatively scarce, and for fatting hogs, the farmers will, to a great extent, be dependent on the new crop. We will state, as a most unusual occurrence, that corn was shipped during the last season, from St. Louis, to points *up* the Missouri river, and shipments were also made from this city to St. Louis. The business in either case was not very extensive, but we mention the facts to show that there was a scarcity in the corn-growing sections alluded to. Relative to the probable price of hogs for the next season, we have made some inquiry, and the opinion seems to be, that the market will open at or about three dollars per one hundred lbs. net, which will be about 40c. above the opening price of last season, and 25c. below the opening price of 1848–9. There is certainly nothing at present that should induce dealers to pay anything over the price named, and nothing but the certainty of a very material deficiency that would justify that price. The present condition of the market cannot be said to be as healthy as at the commencement of the last year. The stocks in the Eastern markets are heavier, the foreign demand for every article is less, and in this market bacon sides are 1 cent, shoulders, ½ cent, hams, 1¾ cents lower than at this date last year. Lard is the same, and mess pork is about 25c. better. There is no prospect of any material increase in foreign demand. These facts together, will cause packers to move cautiously. We here republish a statement given in our last annual report, showing the relative value of the several products to that of the hog, remarking as we did then, that it was furnished by a gentleman who made it up from practical observations:

$3 for hogs would be equal to 3½c. for green sides; $4 44 for bacon do; 2¼c. for green hams; $5 67 for bacon do; 4½c. for green shoulders; $3 03 for bacon do; 5¼c. for lard; $9 for mess pork; $6 50 for rump do; $3 50 for hogs, would be equal to 4c. for green sides; $5 03 for bacon do; 5c. for do. hams; $6 26 for do hams; 3c. for do shoulders; $3 91 for do shoulders; 6¼c. for lard; $10 for mess pork; $6 50 for rump do.

We have already briefly stated that the prospects are now highly favorable for a prosperous season. The country is blest with an abundance of the prod

of the earth. Excepting hay and oats, and exclusiv
average yield, and of the latter, it is one-third mor
taken from the country by California emigrants, is n
bringing large quantities of the products of the mi
turning capital is now felt in the East, and will soon
Western country. The demand for groceries an
merchants of the interior, must be heavy, as there
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speak, a clear field for the operations of the new ye

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probably to matters relating to future prospects, t
Holders of hogs had been greatly discouraged by t
made during the summer and fall, and this had the
the stock from this market, that would otherwise h
this caused an increased business at some of the old
rior, and business was also done at various new p
here, and at other places, was made up by an increa

The packing business commenced on the 31st of
being favorable, operations progressed slowly until
ber, from which time they went forward pretty bris
season, with occasional interruptions, by unfavora
The first sales to packers, noticed, were about 500 h
at $2 50, $2 60 and $2 75, the market leaning tow
this date up to the 1st of December, the average we
68, but from this point prices steadily advanced until
$3 40. The immediate cause of this advance was
market, together with a falling off in the arrivals of
ascertained that there would be a deficiency at this
more spirit, and the season closed with a decide
bulk of the business, however, was done at the low
the weekly average prices, from the commencement
which we here give :

Week ending.	Average price.	Week
Nov. 10,	$2 61	Dec
" 17,	2 66	"
" 24,	2 68	Jan.
Dec. 1,	2 68	"
" 8,	2 74	"
" 15,	2 83	"

The extreme prices of the season were $2 50 a
sales below $2 60, and only one or two lots at o
the opening, highest, and closing prices for the last

	Opening price.	Highest price.
1846–7	$2 75	$4 50..
1847–8	4 25	4 25..
1848–9	3 50	4 00..
1849–50	2 61	3 50..

It was ascertained at the close of the season that t
this city, during the season, was 401,755 head. Th
the business of preceding years :

1846–7	305,000 head	1848–9......
1847–8	500,000 "	1849–50.....

There was no *reliable* statement prepared, of the n
but from the quantity of provisions received at the s
ferred that there was no deficiency, but that the num
any previous season.

PROVISIONS.

The business of the past year may be said to have generally maintained a healthy tone. The market for hogs opened at low prices, leaving packers a fair margin for profits, and from the close of the packing season up to the 1st of June, prices exhibited an upward tendency; since that time the market has been heavy, and at the close it tends in favor of the buyer. In our last annual remarks, under this head, we stated that the probability was, the foreign demand for hog products would not equal the expectations of American dealers. From a table, which we have compiled from official and other equally reliable sources, of the exports from the United States to foreign countries, from Jan. 1st, to latest dates, in the last two years, embracing a period of 7½ months, we find that the amount of the several articles exported were as follows:

	Bacon, lbs.	Pork, bbls.	Beef, bbls.	Lard, kegs.
1849	32,914,250	145,676	48,002	439,252
1850	23,749,020	120,893	66,682	840,906

It is seen that in bacon and pork there has been a considerable decrease. There has been a moderate increase in beef, and an increase of about 100 per cent. in lard. The heavy shipments of the latter had a great effect upon prices in this and other American markets, as will be seen by our remarks on that article.

The following figures show the amount of each article exported to Great Britain and other foreign countries:

	Bacon, lbs.	Pork, bbls.	Beef, bbls.	Lard, kegs.
To Great Britain	18,831,897	33,555	37,447	555,468
Other foreign ports	4,917,123	87,338	29,236	295,438

The prospects for a European demand during the present year is no better than at the commencement of the season just closed, and it is probable that there will be, in the aggregate, a decrease in the exports of the hog products to that country.

In our last annual report we stated that the stock of all descriptions, except lard, was believed to be light, as shown by the exports, from September the 1st to the commencement of the new season, when, it is to be supposed, but little of the old stock remained on hand. The amount held on the 1st of September, 1849, and same time, 1848, was as follows:

	1848.	1849.
Lard, bbls	2,002	2,966
do. kegs	22,149	46,733
Bacon, hhds	4,408	2,782
do. tierces	1,309	1,250
Pork, bbls	23,480	12,751
do. lbs	61,202	5,000

We have not attempted to ascertain the present stock by actual count, but of pork and lard it is believed to be unusually light. The supply of bacon is moderate, but not heavy. In referring to the market during the year, we shall for convenience notice each article separately, and commencing with

PORK.

We find that at the close of the year 1849, the market exhibited a downward tendency, and towards the close of September mess sold as low as $7 62. About the first of October there was a slight reaction, and from the 13th to the 20th $8 was the ruling rate, and it continued to range from $7 87 to $8, until the 10th of November, when the market again began to give way, and for the week ending the 24th, $7 62 was the average price. This was the lowest point reached during the year, except for one lot, which was sold about the commencement of the packing season, for future delivery, at $7 50. On the 1st of December the market began to improve, and on the 22d $8 50 was obtained, and the weekly average prices from that date until the 17th of May, ranged between $8 37 and $8 75, showing an unusually steady market. About the 24th of May, it being ascertained that the stock was very light, holders their figures to $10, and subsequently sales were made at $10 50, June 1st to July 12th, prices varied from $10 to $10 50. The dem ever, was exceedingly limited, and the sales were chiefly of a retail character. This state of things deprived the market of some of its firmness, and although there have been but few lots pressing, prices have since given way, and the last sale heard of, which was made on the 24th ult., was at $9 75; and we may remark, that the market closes heavy at $9 75 a $10, with a very moderate demand. This price is 75c. a $1 above the rates current on the 1st of September, 1849; but the market cannot be said to be better than it was then, as regards its relation to the future, as, with a stock equal to that held at the commencement of the last commercial year, very little over $9 would be obtainable. The exports for the year are 193,581 bbls. against 186,192 bbls. in 1848–9, and are larger than in any previous year, except 1847–8, when they were 196,486 bbls. The amount exported from this port is a trifle larger than one-third of the entire receipts at New-Orleans.

BACON.

At the commencement of the last commercial year holders were realizing very full prices for every description, but rates soon thereafter began to give way, and on the 20th of October, when the season for old bacon closed, they had receded from 8¼c. for plain hams, 5½c. for sides, and 4⅜c. for shoulders, to 5⅜ a 6c., 4c. and 3¾ a 4c., respectively. The market for new bacon opened in January at 5½ a 6c. for hams, 4½c. for sides, and 3½c. for shoulders—and these were the lowest rates of the season. Prices gradually gained firmness until the 12th of July, when the current rates were 6¾ a 7c. for plain hams, 5c. for sides, and 4¼c. for shoulders. These were the highest weekly average rates obtained during the year; and since July the market has exhibited a downward tendency, and closes at 6½, 4¼ a 4¾, and 4c., packed, for hams, sides and shoulders, with a very moderate demand. Holders, however, are generally pretty firm, and some lots of sides and shoulders, in choice condition, are not offered at our quotations. The stock, as already remarked, is moderate, but it is believed that it will be sufficient te supply the demand until the incoming of the new product. Our tables show a falling off in the exports, during the year, of 15,941 hhds.; but by taking the increase in tierces, and that shipped in bulk, and the boxes which were kept distinct the last year, for the first time, and reducing all to hogsheads, the decrease is equal to only 3,851 hhds. The receipts at this port during the year show an increase of 1,385 hhds. bacon, 1,893 tierces, do., and 4,008,286 lbs. pork and bacon in bulk.

The number of boxes of pork exported during the year were 13,448; equal to 5,379,200 lbs., all of which was intended for the English market. This is equal to one-half the entire exports of bacon from New-York to foreign ports since January 1st, and nearly one-fourth the whole amount exported from the U. States in the same time. Fully one-fourth the bacon shipped to the English markets, is packed at this place, and, as we remarked in our last report, the business is chiefly done by gentlemen who fully understand the wants of foreign consumers.

LARD.

The market for this article fluctuated but little during the year, but throughout it maintained a steady and healthy appearance until the close, when the demand fell off and prices began to droop. On the first of the last year the market was heavy at 6c. for prime bbl., and 6½c. for keg. These prices, however, were not subsequently realized, and on the 14th of September the average price was 5¾c. The market continued to droop until October 6, when 5⅝c. was the current rate; at this point a reaction took place, and prices advanced to 5½c.; but early in December they again went down to 5¼c. Early in January there was a permanent advance, a prime article commanding 5¼c.; and from that point it steadily improved until 6¾ a 7c. was reached in the latter part of June. Early in July the market lost its buoyancy, and prices receded about the last of August to 6¼ a 6½ cents for prime keg, which are the closing rates. The market is almost if not entirely bare of prime barrel, and it would command fully as much as keg. The extreme prices during the year were 5¼ a 7c. Last year the extreme rates were 6 a 8c., which shows that the prices of 1848–9 were the most remunerative. The consumption of lard during the year, by lard oil manufactories, was heavier than ever before, being between thirteen and fourteen million of pounds. We may expect this demand to continue, while prices remain within a moderate range, say $5½ a 6½. It is stated that at anything over the latter price, manufacturers seldom realize any profit.

Last season we had occasion to notice a great decrease in the exports to foreign ports. This year we have a corresponding increase to notice, the shipments from the United States since Jan. 1st being 840,906 kegs, against 439,252 kegs, same time last year. The bulk of this was exported during the winter and spring, the amount sent forward during the last three months being comparatively light. The imports at this port during the year show an increase of 5,659 bbls. and 15,142 kegs; and the exports an increase of 1671 bbls. and 39,658 kegs.

BREADSTUFFS.

At the commencement of the last commercial year, flour had reached a high point, in consequence of the deficiency in the wheat crop of 1849, the effects of which then began to be sensibly felt. The high prices current, however, brought forward considerable supplies of surplus wheat that had remained over from the crops of previous years, and under increased receipts, prices declined in September, from $5 to $4 50. In October there was a reaction, and on the 1st of Nov. $4 85 was the average weekly price. From this date until April 26th, prices fluctuated between $4 40 and $5. In May prices improved, and continued to advance until the 7th of June, when $5 85 was the average quotation. From this point prices receded, reaching $4 on the 19th of July. During the two last weeks of July an advance was again established, and $4 25 a $4 50 were obtained, but during the month of August prices ranged from $3 85 to $3 60, closing at about $3 62. The supplies of new wheat have so far come forward very slowly, and there has yet been nothing approaching to a "glut" in the market, but on the contrary, the demand has been fully up with the supply, and this state of things prevented prices from reaching that low point to which it was generally supposed they would recede.

WHEAT.

Wheat has varied during the year, between 70 and 110c. The supplies throughout were quite limited, and generally inferior in quality, and the operations of the city mills were, in consequence, greatly restricted. The receipts by public conveyances, as exhibited in our tables, show a decrease compared with last year, of 56,593 bushels, but much the heaviest deficiency was in the receipts by wagons, of which we have no account. The market is now steady at 70c., with a demand fully equal to the supply.

CORN.

High prices were maintained for this article throughout the year, the lowest price being 24c., and that was submitted to only for a few days. The extreme average rates were 24 a 51c., exclusive of packages, and the average for the year was 38½ cts., against 28 cts. in '48–9, and 27½ cts. in '47–8. The comparative scarcity of the article in other Western markets, and the relative high prices current, caused a greatly increased export demand in this market, and we find that the receipts at this port, during the year, show an increase of 392,520, which is a little more than 50 per cent. over those of last year. This increase was owing to supplies being attracted hither from Northern and Eastern markets, by the high prices current.

WHISKEY.

The receipts at this port during the year, show an increase of 19,042 barrels, and the exports an increase of 42,529 bbls. This is one, and perhaps the only article in our trade, the consumption of which is not affected by the price
During the year prices have ranged from 18½ a 23¼c., the currency
time being above 20c. The average price for the year is fully
that for 1848–9.

MANUFACTURES.

The manufacturing business having become a leading and important branch of our city's industry, it is important that we should devote to it a considerable portion of our annual report. In the last report, presented at the close of the commercial year, no attempt was made to give a statement of this business, as it had been found impossible to collect such facts as would have enabled us to submit a reliable report of even a portion of the leading branches, most of the manufacturers being unable to see the advantage to themselves or the city, of such an exhibit as it had been proposed to make. Most of the obstacles, however, which were then in the way, have been overcome, and we have succeeded in collecting such information as enables us to present a sufficiently reliable statement of nearly all the principal branches of manufactures in the city.

It is only a few years since this place took her stand among the manufacturing cities of the Union, and yet so rapid has been the progress in this branch of business, that there is none, perhaps, that can boast of a greater variety of manufacturing establishments, and now our city may be said to be *the* manufacturing, as well as *the* commercial metropolis of the West.

When we compare the present condition of the business of our city, with that of a few years since, it must be admitted that our prosperity, in a commercial point of view, is in a great degree attributable to the rapid growth of the manufactories, and it would now be impossible to sever the connecting link between the mercantile and manufacturing interests. For manufacturing purposes, as it has often been remarked by strangers as well as citizens, there is not perhaps in the Union, and certainly not in the West, a more desirable location than this. Situated as we are, in the midst of the richest and most populous states in the Western country, and in the most prosperous state from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and being connected by railroads, river and canals, with most of the principal places in the West, our manufacturers as well as our merchants, must continue to command a large share—the heaviest portion—of the Western trade, and there does not seem to be the least probability, and hardly a possibility, of the leading interests of the city being checked in their progress. In many branches it is impossible for Eastern manufacturers to compete with those of the Western valley. Here facilities are great; iron, coal, lumber, &c., are abundant, and of easy access; food is cheaper than in the East; labor is fully as low, and in addition to all these, we have the advantage of being *among*, or *convenient* to the consumers, thus saving to the latter the heavy cost of transportation between Eastern and Western cities. Our market has therefore become a prominent one for manufactures, and this has given, and will continue to give, additional impetus to other branches of business, so that the manufacturer in attracting customers for himself, attracts them also for the merchant. With these few general remarks, we proceed to notice, under respective heads, the several leading branches, commencing with

ROLLING MILLS, FOUNDRIES, &c.

There are in the city and vicinity (all of which properly belong and find a market for their products here) seven rolling mills, viz :—Licking Iron Works, Morrell, Stewart & Co.; Cincinnati Iron Works, Shreve, Steele & Co.; Bloom Forge Iron Works, Gaylord & Co.; Covington Iron Works, J. K. McNickle; Vulcan Iron Works; Cincinnati Iron Company; Newport Iron Works, and D. Wolff. The capital invested in these establishments is $760,000; products annually, $1,580,000; annual consumption of pig iron, 15,900 tons; do. scrap iron, 1,050 tons; do. blooms, 5,800 tons; consumption of coal, 1,100,000 bushels; hands employed, 945.

The stove foundries number fourteen, viz.: Etna Foundry, Lewis & Towncliff; stove foundry, D. Root; Clay Iron Works, Jas. Webb; Covington Iron Foundry, Geo. W. Ball; Journeymen's Union Foundry Association; Buckeye Foundry, Gould & McCracken; Fulton Foundry, R. R. Andrews; Telegraph Iron Works, W. C. Davis & Co.; Western Iron Foundry, Gilpin & Matthews; Stove Foundry, French & Winslow; do. do., W. & R. P. Resor; do. do., Goodhue & Co.; do do., Noyes & Rogers; do. do., Wolff & Co. Aggregate capi-

tal invested, $557,000; products, $892,000; pig iron consumed, 9,450 tons; scrap do., 725 tons; coal, 102,900 bushels; coke, 86,000 bushels; number of hands employed, 880. The number of stoves manufactured annually, is about 101,000, of which, the greatest portion are shipped without trimmings—the whole West being supplied to a great extent, from this point—and our estimate of the products does not include the trimmings attached to those disposed of in the city by retail.

The Machine Shops and Foundries number twenty-eight, viz.: Hanks & Thompson, Lyon & Bell, Milligan & Clements, R. S. Temple, Miles Greenwood, Miles Greenwald & Co., J. S. Pollock, J. & J. Fishwick, Jas. Todd & Co., J. Bevan & Co., W. R. Andrews, D. Griffey, Martin Anshutz & Co., George Shields, Greenwald & Bonsal, Lathrop & Co., A. Gardner & Co., Aschcraft & Rusk, Baker & Morton, Horton & Macy, D. A. Powell, Jas. Goodloe & Co., J. H. Burrows & Co., Reynolds, Kite & Co., Tatem, Niles & Co., A. Harkness & Co., A. B. Holabird, and —— White. Included in these are two Pipe Foundries, which are not in operation, and we do not embrace them in the following aggregate. Number of hands employed, 1,799; capital, $1,498,000; products, $2,459,000; consumption, 14,670 tons of pig iron; 156 do. blooms; 505 do. scrap; 545,000 bushels coal, 95,500 do. coke.

RECAPITULATION.

	Capital.	Products.	Consumption of iron.	Consumption of coal and coke.
Rolling mills	760,000	1,580,000	22.750	1,100,000
Stove foundries	557,000	892,000	10,175	188,900
Machine shops	1,498,000	2,459,000	15,271	640,500
Total	2,815,000	4,931,000	48,196	1,929,400

The number of hands employed in the above establishments, are as follows: Rolling Mills, 945; Stove Foundries, 880; Machine Shops, 1799.

The iron business in common with every other branch of industry, has suffered much depression during the last two summers, in consequence of sickness, but it is now reviving, and has generally a very healthy appearance. Pig iron, which was exceedingly dull in the spring and early in the summer, is now in brisk demand at $26 per ton, which is three dollars above the lowest point reached, and all good lots are taken freely on arrival. The shipments of stoves during the past year, have been as large as in any previous season, but the profits were less satisfactory.

NOTE.

Since the publication of the above in the Price Current, we have discovered that the Globe Iron Works of Messrs. Worthington & Pullan were not mentioned among the Rolling Mills. The products of this establishment were included in the aggregate given, but the names of the works and proprietors were accidentally omitted. We also learn that the stock of the Cincinnati and Vulnare Mills has been purchased by one or two individuals, and the latter have *very recently* concluded to remove the machinery, &c., to St. Louis. This change was determined upon after the facts upon which our report is based, were furnished, and this accounts for the discrepancy which we have corrected.

FURNITURE.

It is only a few years since steam was introduced into the furniture factories, and although at the outset there were many difficulties to be contended against, the business succeeded wonderfully, and it is now an important branch of the manufacturing business of the city. At first no attempt was made to manufacture other than the common or plain articles of furniture, but now every description almost, from the common bedstead to the most costly articles, are m
some of the extensive steam establishments, and steam made furniture
longer regarded as inferior to that made by hand, but on the contrary, the

is generally preferred. The great reduction in price, caused by the introduction of steam, has attracted a large trade from the Western and Southern country, and Cincinnati furniture is now purchased for the most distant portion of the states bordering on the Ohio, Mississippi, Missouri, Illinois, Cumberland and Tennessee rivers. Considerable quantities are also sent out by canals and railroads, and indeed we may say there is a demand from every section. The reduction in price within the last five years, is on an average, 33 per cent.; on some articles the reduction is 50 per cent., but on others it is less—the finer descriptions requiring a considerable amount of hand-work. There are in the city proper nine steam factories, which do an average yearly business of $668,500. If we add to these the business of the several establishments in the city where steam is *not* used, the furniture trade would be about one million dollars. The following are the proprietors of the steam factories, viz.:—Clawson & Mudge, John K. Coolidge, Geo. W. Coddington, Walter & Meader, Henry Closserman, Smith & Hawley, Mitchell & Rammelsberg, and H. Weiderecht & Co. In seven of the establishments named, there are manufactured annually, 4,250 bedsteads, 14,500 doz. chairs, 7,500 bureaus, 1,000 writing desks, 4,500 washstands, 1,560 sofas, 2,500 card tables, and 200 wardrobes. In order to give an idea of the *quality* of "the steam furniture," we will state the range of prices for some articles, from which it will be seen that the business is not confined to the common or even middling descriptions; washstands, $1 50 to $30 each; chairs, $4 50 to $90 per doz.; wardrobes, $6 50 to $70 each; bureaus, $15 to $40; sofas, $15 to $60; writing desks, $7 50 to $30 each. With the great facilities now possessed at this place for the manufacture of every article in the furniture line, and the rapidly increasing demand for the supply of the extending population of the West, we cannot but believe that the increase in the business, during the next year, will fully equal that of the past.

BUILDING MATERIALS.

The introduction and growth of this business has been most extrardinary, and the effect which steam and machinery has had upon the price of carpenter work is not less so. A few years ago flooring boards were the only article worked by machinery, if we except two or three sash establishments where horse power was used for performing the heaviest part of the work, and where a considerable amount of sash was manufactured. We have now, however, six factories where sash, doors, blinds, base, mouldings, and other trimmings, are manufactured, and these articles are supplied not only to the city builders, but to a considerable extent to the whole Western and Southern country. So great has been the reduction in price that builders living fifteen hundred miles from here are able to supply themselves on more favorable terms, from our factories, than they can manufacture the article at home. City builders also supply themselves chiefly from the factories, and the consequence is, that the price of building has fallen greatly. To show the extent of the decline, we will mention that some years since, the master builders of the city established a "bill of prices," and work was done about seven years since, at fifty cents on the bill, which was then considered a very low price, but now the great bulk of work is done at *twenty* and *twenty-five* cents, and it is only occasionally that as high as thirty cents is obtained. This great reduction is readily accounted for by the decline in the price of work, which is supplied by the factories 50 per cent. less than before the introduction of machinery. We have already remarked that the whole Western and Southern countries are supplied, to some extent, from this place; to be more specific, we will state that shipments are constantly making to points on the lower Ohio and Mississippi, to New-Orleans, on the Upper Mississippi, Missouri, and Illinois rivers, also, along the Tennessee, Cumberland, and Kentucky rivers; in a word, wherever a steamboat navigates, and inland, as far as the canal boat and locomotive penetrates. There are, as already stated, six sash, door, and blind factories, and fourteen flooring mills in the city. The total value of materials manufactured during the year, is about $200,000, and about one-third of this amount is exported. In addition to the steam establishments, there are various small factories where articles are manufactured by hand, or horse power is used, and it is estimated that the aggregate annual products of the latter is $75,000.

The great perfection to which machinery has been brought, is well worthy of remark. Tenoning and mortising is done with more exactness than the work could be performed by hand, and mouldings for trimmings and sash are neatly made, and come from the machine ready for the finisher.

We cannot give a more conclusive proof of the great extent to which this business has progressed, than by stating the dimensions of a factory that is being erected by Messrs. Hinkle & Guild, which is to be entirely devoted to the manufacture of building materials. The building fronts on Front-street and runs back to the river, and is sixty feet front by 250 feet deep, the river front seven stories high, and the Front-street front, five. This building will be capable of containing machinery that will give employment to 500 hands, and we have no doubt that before long there will be work sufficient for that number. Attached to the main building is a dry house, 12 by 40, six stories high. Through this steam pipes will pass, and heat will be thereby created, which will perfectly season all the lumber that will be used in the factory. We had intended to have given here a comparative statement of the prices of sash, doors, &c., but our limited space compels us to bring this subject to a close, as we have yet several branches to notice.

CARRIAGES.

Until recently the Western market was chiefly supplied from Eastern factories, but this trade is now greatly interfered with, and we may say almost entirely cut off by our own manufacturers. The business has also been brought to great perfection, and carriages manufactured in the city during the last year, would do credit to any Eastern establishment, and the disposition manifested by some to buy Eastern work, is only accounted for by the singular desire that a portion of our people have for spending money from home. As an evidence of the advantages of the West for manufactures, we may state that a Connecticut axle-tree manufacturer, who shipped his manufactures West, finding it impossible to compete with our own establishments, recently removed to Pittsburgh, and is now carrying on his business at that point.

There are in the city ten factories, viz.: Hoyt & Hull, H. P. Gryden & Co., J. W. Gosling & Co., G. C. Miller & Sons, S. & H. Barnes, Joseph Dalton, John Wiltz, Ward & Co., John Roberts, I. & B. Bruce & Co. The capital invested is $132,000, annual products, $345,000; hands employed, 300. In addition to these there is a large number of omnibus manufactories, including the extensive establishment of Keck & Davenport, whose annual business alone is not far from $100,000.

COTTON FACTORIES.

Our city contains comparatively but a small proportion of the cotton factories of the West, the whole number in this city, Covington and Newport, being only five. There are, however, several in the country, which, although not situated here, are owned in whole, or in part, by our citizens, and all in this section of country depend on this city for a market for their products. There are, as we have already stated, five factories in the city and vicinity, viz.: Franklin Factory, Gould, Pearce & Co., O'Shaughnessy & Co., Covington Cotton Factory, J. C. Giessendorff. These run 19,400 spindles, produce annually, 3,186,000 yds. of brown sheetings, and 1,014,000 lbs. cotton yarns, consume 4,350 bales of cotton, and employ 505 hands. The value of the annual products is about $458,000. The capital invested in the buildings and machinery alone, is $220,000.

During the past year we took considerable trouble to collect statistics of the cotton factories in the West, and we believe we succeeded in getting accounts from all the leading establishments. According to the statement made up when our returns were completed, the whole number of spindles running is [illegible] and the annual consumptiun of cotton is 27,350 bales.

LINSEED AND LARD OIL.

There are in the city, four Linseed Oil Mills, which pressed during the last year, about 100,000 bushels of seed, produced 200,000 gallons of oil, and 2,000 tons of oil cake. These establishments have a capacity for pressing 347,000 bushels of seed annually, which would produce 600,000 gallons of oil, but that quantity of seed has never been obtained, nor would there be a market found for such a large quantity of oil, unless the seed would be furnished at such a price as to enable Western manufacturers to compete with foreign oil in the Eastern markets. This, however, cannot be done until the manufacture of flax becomes a *business*, and a pretty extensive business in the West. This may, we think, be expected at no very distant day, and then the farmers, finding a market for both the lint and seed, will give more attention to the cultivation of flax.

In relation to the lard oil business, we have to say, that the statement we present is based entirely upon estimates, manufacturers having refused to give any information on the subject. The estimates were made, however, by persons having a pretty extensive knowledge of the business, and we have reason to believe that the statement approximates sufficiently near to the truth to warrant us in giving it a place in our report. There are 40 establishments, small and large, in the city, which produce annually about 33,110 bbls. of oil, and seven million pounds stearine. The aggregate value of the products is about $1,119,000.

CASTOR OIL.

During the year a castor oil mill has been erected in our city, by Messrs. Conklin, Wood & Co., which will very soon go into operation.

SOAP AND CANDLES.

There are eight extensive factories in the city, two of which have been erected this season. We are able to give no other facts connected with this business, than those furnished in our tables, showing the exports from this port for a series of years.

WHITE LEAD AND PAINTS.

There are four white lead factories in the city, viz. : Conkling, Wood & Co., L. Carneal & Co., R. Conkling & Co., and R. Conkling & Sons ; the annual products of which is about $256,000. Connected with that of Messrs. Conkling, Wood & Co., is an establishment where every variety of colored paints are manufactured, and of this the annual business is about $25,000.

BOOTS AND SHOES.

The manufacture of boots and shoes is a business which has, and continues to make, rapid progress in our city. Most, indeed nearly all, of the work sold in this and other Western markets, a few years since, was imported from the East, but within five years the business of the city has increased two hundred per cent., and we have now in operation six wholesale factories, which employ about seven hundred hands. There are altogether twenty-seven wholesale houses in the city, all of whom manufacture more or less ; and it is estimated that there are in all, fifteen hundred hands employed in this business.

The value of work manufactured by wholesale houses, is about $200,000, and the probable value of boots and shoes *imported* is $1,000,000. Eastern work is sold ten per cent. cheaper than that manufactured in the city.

We have, in the above remarks, given as reliable statements of the several branches, as it was possible to obtain. The whole was collected with much care ; and we believe the reports to be sufficiently reliable for all practical purposes. There are many other branches of business in the city which we proposed noticing, but our report is already so extended, and our space so limited, that we must bring the subject to a close with a recapitulation of the aggregate products of the several branches :

RECAPITULATION.

Rolling Mills	$1,580,000
Stoves and Hollowware	892,000
Machine Foundries	2,459,000
Furniture	668,500
Building Materials	375,000
Carriages	445,000
Cotton Factories	458,000
Linseed Oil	170,000
Lard Oil	1,119,000
Castor Oil	10,000
White Lead and Paints	280,000
Boots and Shoes	200,000
Total	$8,656,500

It is seen that we have not made any estimate of the products of the soap and candle business. Without this we have twelve branches, the annual products of which is $8,656,500. We can thus see how much the city is indebted to manufactories for her unprecedented prosperity, and that, in awarding to her the highest place among the manufacturing cities of the West, we said no more than was warranted by the facts which we have endeavored fully and fairly to present.

STEAMBOAT BUILDING.

From the discouraging prospects for the boating business, that were exhibited at the commencement of the year, and which did not improve materially as the season advanced, we were prepared to find a great falling off in the steamboat building at this point; and when we learned that only eleven boats had been built at the port during the year, we were not disappointed. Within the last few months, however, business has greatly revived, and there is at this time about 25 boats on the stocks, all or nearly all of which will be completed in season for the fall business. The following is a list of the boats and barges registered during the year ending Aug. 31st ultimo:

Name.	Tonnage.	Value.	When built.
Natches, No. 2	520	33,000	October, 1849
Trustee	149	8,500	" "
Ohio	348	25,000	" "
Barge Eliza	204	2,800	" "
" Transport	194	2,700	" "
" Buckeye	170	2,490	Novem., "
Delta	396	27,000	" "
Jack Hays	189	12,000	Decem. "
Gulnare	347	24,000	" "
Wisconsin, No. 2	297	27,000	" "
Pochahontas	307	27,060	" "
Ironton	187	10,500	January, 1850
Barge Temple	198	2,300	March, "
R. H. Lee	158	9,000	May, "
Crescent	548	28,000	" "
Barge Uncle Sam	260	4,000	June, "
Total	4,560	245,100	

The number and tonnage of the boats built during the previous four years, were as follows:

Years.	No.	Tonnage.
1848–9	23	7,281
1847–8	29	10,233
1846–7	32	8,268
1845–6	25	5,657

It is proper to remark here, that the building business at points above this place, including Pittsburgh, do not show that deficiency that we have to rec but on the contrary, there is (so far as we are able to judge from and partial reports) an increase in the aggregate; and tonnage and to be put afloat, on the Western waters this fall, will be full any demand that may be experienced.

EXPORTS AT CINCINNATI.

For five years, commencing September 1st, and ending Aug. 21st., each year.

ARTICLES.		'45–'46	'46–'47	'47–'48	'48–'49	'49–'50
Apples, green	bbls	3920	14444	8512	5824	3519
Alcohol		1615	1943	1771	3022	3302
Beef		8896	10367	14811	12523	7558
Do	tierces	11301	7970	3615	9332	6625
Beans	bbls	2048	3782	1097	1685	2496
Brooms	doz	1514	5108	3760	3333	7265
Butter	bbls	1624	1348	2937	1272	964
Do	firkins and kegs	20390	31194	28315	24398	24393
Bran, &c	sacks	......	3842	3761	233	4322
Bagging	pieces	19716	8867	12632	15910	9353
Corn	sacks	......	258198	53021	7176	57248
Cornmeal	bbls	1258	88882	19999	3660	1179
Cheese	casks	604	1132	30	122	106
Do	boxes	35459	70104	59374	55134	86902
Candles		3757	16622	29189	39640	67447
Cattle	head	168	872	733	97	30
Cotton	bales	......	5019	6123	4009	1896
Coffee	sacks	......	13037	18587	18909	22030
Cooperage	pieces	18388	41121	36924	55617	73637
Eggs	bbls	4787	10308	9450	5229	4246
Flour		194700	581920	201011	267420	98908
Feathers	sacks	29	4000	3736	3824	5380
Fruit, dried	bush	684	16077	5074	8317	1850
Grease	bbls	370	694	4268	6922	7597
Grass seed		642	3967	2431	2387	2528
Horses	head	654	2026	1268	378	468
Hay	bales	......	327	94	1040	564
Hemp		......	8733	5659	2198	1164
Hides	lbs	......	164930	60880	73029	62865
Hides	No	......	12444	9024	7731	11225
Iron	pieces	2937	68905	127193	43025	54075
Do	bdls	......	9339	17351	7081	36245
Do	tons	9238	5646	6916	6270	5767
Lard	bbls	22747	49878	81679	37521	39192
Do	kegs	135008	150828	208696	130509	170167
Lard Oils	bbls	1650	6199	8277	9550	16984
Linseed Oil		455	6032	3878	3020	4879
Molasses		......	9046	18332	17750	25878
Oil Cake	tons	2792	5246	4397	2274	743
Oats	sacks	17944	140067	41675	212	5023
Potatoes	bbls	14956	34130	15687	7073	5283
Pork and Bacon	hhds	15287	31538	37162	39470	23529
Do	tierces	3874	7894	8862	10930	22477
Do	bbls	29302	137218	196186	186192	193581
Do in bulk	lbs	404426	3478850	759188	924256	2310699
Rope, &c	packages	13037	8723	5556	4369	3151
Soap	boxes	2708	10080	11095	11303	17443
Sheep	head	100	726	1400	522	....
Sugar	hhds	......	4998	11559	8443	9650
Salt	bbls	......	65346	39656	39960	29509
Do	sacks	......	4416	5057	5403	8301
Seed, Flax	bbls	138	291	2785	808	333
Sundry merchandise	packages	23603	224957	341363	210049	615641
Do do	tons	2106	18179	16849	21466	11109
Do liquors	bbls	353	7193	9364	10913	11798
Do manufactures	pieces	7975	22251	42412	94934	56810
Do produce	packages	1085	17879	28822	17609	10327
Starch	boxes	2499	5820	8177	7904	9491
Tallow		3452	4543	5682	4975	4311
Tobacco	kegs and boxes	1473	9718	9352	7497	6904
Do	hhds	3803	6011	3812	3309	4847
Do	bales	......	273	123	126	77
Vinegar	bbls	204	3814	2753	1288	2404
Whiskey		133220	183928	186509	136911	179540
Wool	bales	......	2452	2298	1109	2156
Do	bags	......	36710	7037	10230	16841
White Lead	kegs	......	......	......	......	40294
Castings	pieces	......	......	......	......	54399
Do	tons	......	......	......	......	2385
Pork	boxes			......	......	13448

VALUE OF SPECIFIC ARTICLES

Imported into Cincinnati from September 1*st*, 1849, *to August* 31*st*, 1850, *and same time last year.*

Articles.	1849–'50. Amount.	Av. price.	Value dollars.	1848–'9 Value dollars.
Apples, barrels	6,445..	1 75..	11,278..	49,730
Beef do	801..	9 00..	7,209..	3,132
Barley, bushel	137,925..	75..	103,443..	56,849
Butter, barrels	3,674..	27 00..	99,198..	189,994
Do. kegs	7,487..	8 00..	59,869..	60,000
Blooms, tons	2,545..	60 00..	152,700..	571,140
Corn, bushels	649,227..	38..	246,706..	96,574
Cheese, boxes	165,940..	2 40..	398,206..	347,834
Cotton, bales	8,551..	45 00..	384,795..	317,030
Coffee, sacks	67,173..	21 00..	1,310,633..	839,563
Flour, barrels	231,859..	4 75..	1,101,329..	1,690,850
Hemp, bales	12,062..	14 00..	168,868..	168,526
Hogs, head	410,000..	6 00..	2,460,000..	3,075,000
Lead, pigs	49,179..	3 40..	167,208..	143,495
Lard, barrels	34,173..	13 00..	444,246..	399,196
Lard, kegs	63,327..	2 40..	151,984..	90,228
Molasses, barrels	54,003..	11 00..	594,033..	553,783
Oats, bushels	191,924..	30..	57,577..	46,430
Bacon, hhds	7,563..	33 00..	249,579..	247,120
Do tierces	2,358..	12 00..	28,296..	5,812
Pork, barrels	43,237..	8 82..	381,350..	354,403
Do pounds	13,257,506..	3¾.	497,156..	462,469
Pig metal, tons	17,211..	26 00..	447,486..	405,912
Rice, tierces	3,556..	24 00..	85,344..	80,760
Sugar, hhds	26,760..	51 00..	1,364,760..	992,468
Do bbls	13,005..	15 00..	195,075..	113,625
Do boxes	2,467..	24 00..	57,208..	22,168
Wheat, bushels	332,699..	91..	302,756..	289,041
Whiskey, bbls	186,678..	9 00..	1,680,102..	1,111,615
			12,668,379	12,423,717

DESTINATION OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES

Exported from the port of Cincinnati during the last three years, commencing September 1*st and ending August* 31*st, each year.*

	To N. Orleans.		Oth. down-river ports.		Up-river ports.		Via canals and railways.		By flat-boats.	
	'48–'49	'49–'50'	'48–'9	49–50	'48–'49	'49–'50	'48–'9	'49–'50	'48–'49	'49–'50
Beef, bbls	11628	16423	298	173	172	305	176	574	254	82
Do tcs	9012	6578	....	....	20	47	....	....	300	....
Butter, bbls	806	762	259	177	4	1	109	2	94	22
Do firkins & kgs	21711	22445	1982	1582	100	....	169	56	476	310
Corn, sacks	6759	421.9	....	9070	231	3420	186	2642	....	....
Cheese	31185	44388	20972	38551	704	1516	1178	1123	1090	1326
Candles	19040	41007	11582	13197	3121	7466	5702	4782	255	999
Cotton, bales	10	....	20	9	2047	977	1932	910	....	....
Coffee, sacks	....	....	1214	2807	4155	4800	13538	14423	....	....
Flour, bbls	150525	44290	22033	25767	12191	8360	8635	3743	74036	16748
Iron, pcs	2482	1456	22757	26035	1146	2823	16634	23761	....	....
Do. bdls	492	1932	5009	18676	141	2580	1439	13057	....	....
Do. tons	656	89	1304	777	255	415	4255	4490	....	....
Lard, bbls	30112	34809	321	113	1871	1341	4603	1494	614	1435
Do. kegs	120104	110635	2527	2390	3911	11704	265	16850	3702	28588
Lard oil, bbls	6018	9977	1049	927	1802	2221	1671	3843	....	16
Linseed oil, bbls	1419	2540	964	736	385	782	252	821	....	....
Molasses, bbls	....	....	538	1404	9733	7710	7479	16764	....	....
Pork, hhds	26172	16009	679	397	9010	5086	2821	380	788	1657
Do. tcs	8606	11902	84	251	1624	6096	493	2396	123	832
Do. bbls	171776	172624	1082	188	5229	4492	2377	7958	4728	8319
Do. pounds	82300	21500	446	2560	501805	228400	99705	1620319	2 0000	437920
Soap, bxs	5646	7083	1534	5397	3234	3693	542	575	347	695
Sugar, hhds	....	....	347	494	2382	2244	5814	6912		
Whiskey, bbls	64258	96712	22214	42528	5661	21945	3074	2731		

2.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF MOBILE—1849-'59.

We are indebted to the Mobile Merchants' and Planters' Price Current for the following particulars of the trade of that city of the past year:

GENERAL REVIEW OF TRADE—1849–'50.

We now present our customary annual review of the market for the season, together with the statistics of the commerce of this port. Our tables have been prepared with the utmost care and attention, and will be found to contain accurate statements of the movements in the various departments of trade.

The receipts of cotton at this port during the year commencing on the first of September last, and terminating this day, are ascertained to be 350,952 bales, being a decrease of 160,764 bales from the preceding season. The stock on hand is 12,962 bales, being 7,916 bales more than last year at this time, and our foreign exports have been 182,177 bales less than last season. The entire crop of the United States appears to be about 2,100,000 bales, being a deficiency from that of the preceding year of 628,596 bales, and of 247,634 bales less than the crop of 1847–'48. It will be perceived that the estimate made in our last annual review has approximated as near to the actual result as could reasonably be expected. The present stock on hand in all the ports is estimated at 143,833 bales, which is 29,854 bales over last year. The stock on hand on the 1st September, 1849, 142,034 bales, added to the receipts of the present season, of 2,100,000 bales, would make the supply for the year 2,242,034 bales. This has been distributed in the following manner: Great Britain, 1,100,000 bales; France, 285,000 bales; other foreign ports, 190,000 bales. The stock now on hand of 140,000 bales being added, makes 1,717,000 bales in all, and thus leaves the amount of 527,034 bales consumed in this country during the year.

We have to record the transit of a year of remarkable success and prosperity. Every element of trade has been in successful operation. The prevalence of peace throughout the world, the abundance of provisions, the general employment of labor, the cheapness of money, and the reaction resulting from the political derangements of 1848, have all conspired favorably to affect the general interests of commerce. The operations in cotton have been, almost without exception, successful. Notwithstanding the unprecedented crop of 1848–'49, it was discovered that consumption had so far gained upon production, that the discouraging appearance of the crop last summer, immediately induced a considerable advance in the prices at which the market opened. These rates were not only sustained throughout the year, but with occasional fluctuations, they have been gradually enhanced until the close of the season, influenced latterly to some extent by the apprehension of another short production. It is a source of gratification to the country, that notwithstanding the many inducements to speculative movements in the article, sufficient caution has been maintained to keep prices within justifiable limits—thus rendering them more permanent, and making the business comparatively safe, with better assurances of a successful termination. Nevertheless, the prices paid in this country have realized to the planting interest a much larger amount of money than has been received for any previous crop. It is a remarkable fact that the crop of this year, though more than six hundred thousand bales short of the production of the preceding season, has actually yielded twenty millions of dollars more, and that about four millions of this excess has been received and distributed among the planting community trading at this port.

The transactions in the general departments of trade have been equally remunerative, and the business of our city and the country has never appeared in a more favorable condition. We commence the year under the most gratifying auspices, and it seems merely to require a maintenance of the prudence hitherto manifested to ensure another successful season.

It is with much pleasure that we revert to the improved condition of commercial affairs immediately at home. The restoration of the original privilege of issue to the Bank of Mobile, granted by the Legislature last winter, has enabled that institution to extend its accommodations to the business community, and we have heard of no difficulty during the past year, either in the disposal of exchange, or in the negotiation on favorable terms of good business paper. The Southern Bank of Alabama, chartered also last winter, will likewise commence operations in a few weeks, and will furnish additional facilities. The disabilities under which we have hitherto labored in this respect, we think will now be entirely removed. The appearance of our city, notwithstanding the recent loss of our two principal hotels, furnishes ample evidence of growing prosperity. Important improvements in real estate have taken place during the year, and we have scarcely a doubt that a considerable accession has been made to our permanent population. The works of a local character, to which we alluded in our last annual review, have steadily advanced towards completion. Two cotton factories are now nearly, if not quite ready for work, and in the course of a few weeks will commence active operations. The floating dock was launched some weeks ago, and will be in readiness for vessels in a very short time. The great and most important work connected with the prosperity of our city—the Mobile and Ohio Railroad—still continues under the management of its able and effective board of directors to advance in progress. Arrangements have been made for the purchase of the iron, and the directors, by the first of June next, expect to have cars running on the first section of thirty-three miles. The increased ability of our citizens, resulting from the prosperous business of the last two years, gives additional assurances that the enterprise will be pressed with unflagging energy.

One disturbing element alone remains to mar the bright prospect which our prosperity opens to us. But we have yet an abiding faith that a benign Providence will so direct and control the public councils, that this dark cloud may be dispelled, and that the union, peace, and happiness of the country may be perpetuated.

COTTON.

When we closed our last annual review, the market, although dull, was extremely firm, the stock on sale being quite limited. The prospects of the growing crop were so adverse as to render certain a production far below that of the preceding year. The heavy stock in Liverpool operated, however, as a check upon any extravagant advance in prices, and influenced buyers to await the further developments of the season.

The receipts of cotton during the month of September were on a fair scale for that season of the year. Prices, in view of the condition of the growing crop, ruled nearly two cents higher than the Liverpool quotations, and the sales of the month were limited to about 3,000 bales—middlings 9¾ a 10 c. During the early part of October, the market was dull and inanimate. The advices from Europe were not satisfactory to holders, and in the absence of orders, prices were supported by the confirmation of a deficiency in the production, which it was believed would finally produce its effect abroad. This expectation was to some extent realized by advices received in the last week of the month, announcing an advance of ⅜d. in Liverpool. This intelligence brought buyers more freely into the market, and considerable sales were effected at a slight advance—middlings closing at 10 c. The sales of the month were 11,000 bales, and the receipts 19,902. November opened with a fine demand, and at advancing prices. The advices from Europe, received in the early part of the month, were regarded as highly favorable, and produced a still further improvement in prices, but the original difference between our quotations and those at Liverpool, existing at the opening of the season, had scarcely yet been equalized by the advances in that market, and operators began to hesitate, and finally refused the rates demanded, on the ground that they were not warranted by the relative position of the markets, and prices which had advanced half a cent, fell back to ten cents for middlings. A continuation of the advances in Liverpool, however, assisted the market towards the close of the month, and brought forward a good demand, under which an improvement of ¼ c. was established—middlings ruling at 10¼ c. The sales of the month were estimated at 35,000 bales, and the receipts were 56,937 bales. The early part of December was characterized by a moderate demand, the free receipts making holders rather easier in their pretensions, which being succeeded by unfavorable accounts from Liverpool, occasioned some decline in prices. A considerable amount of orders, however, being pressed on the market towards the close of the month, imparted more animation to the business, and large sales were effected, at an advance of ¼ to ⅜ of a cent—middlings closing at 10⅛ to 10¼ c. Sales of the month estimated at 39,200 bales. Receipts 66,682 bales. January opened with a very firm market, and a good demand, which was maintained throughout the month, the accounts from Europe being of a highly favorable character. The improvement during the month was fully one cent—middlings closing at 11⅛ a 11¼ c., and holders very indifferent to accepting these prices. The sales of the month were computed at 63,000 bales. Receipts 82,267 bales. The early part of February was governed by the same views, and prices were fully sustained during the first week. The large stock pressing on the market, with less favorable advices from Europe, inclined factors to yield something about the middle of the month, and as the character of the foreign accounts was not calculated to sustain the market, a concession of ¼ a ⅜ cent was established at the close of the month. Sales 47,400 bales. Receipts 42,542 bales. The month of March was marked by great uniformity throughout, prices having scarcely fluctuated more than ⅛ a ¼ c. A reduction to this extent, which occurred in the early part of the month, having subsequently recovered, prices were well maintained, with a moderate demand. The quotation for middlings at the close was 10⅞ c. Sales for the month estimated at 39,600 bales. Receipts 23,577 bales. There was no change from this state of things for April, until near the close of the month. Then the unfavorable character of the spring began to exercise some influence on the market, an increased firmness having, from this cause, been imparted to holders, and a stronger inclination manifested to take hold of the article by purchasers. This feeling resulted in an improvement of nearly ½ cent towards the last week, and the closing quotations were placed at 11¼ a 11⅜ c. for middlings. Sales 27,400 bales. Receipts 13,902 bales. May opened with a continuation of this feeling, which was further improved by the receipt of favorable advices from Liverpool. The transactions were considerable in the early part of the month, at an advance of nearly ½ cent, but as the letters did not cover orders to the extent anticipated, and speculative purchasers being heavily stocked, the demand fell off, and but for the firmness of factors, prices would have given way considerably. Pressing lots, however, were disposed of by shipment or otherwise—the market was relieved and closed with middlings at 11½ c. The sales of the month amounted to 27,800 bales, and the receipts were 11,992. There was scarcely any new feature during June. The demand was very moderate throughout the month, the continued unfavorable character of the weather inducing holders to offer their stocks quite sparingly. Prices, however, improved ¼ cent during the last fortnight—middlings being quoted at 11¾ cents. Sales 24,300 bales. Receipts 4,685 bales. The first week in July was dull, and prices receded a trifle, but after that, the market became animated under favorable advices from Europe, and quotations gradually advanced until the end of the month, when middlings reached 12¼ cents. The sales were 25,200 bales. Receipts 3,704 bales. From the commencement to the 17th of August, the market was dull, and prices fell off ¼ a ⅜ of a cent. From that period to the close of the month, prices gradually stiffened, and the season closes with a firm market—middlings fully 12¼ cts. Receipts 1,747 bales. Sales 13,900 bales.

Ninety-one bales of the new crop have been received, against 56 bales same time last year. The samples that have come under our observation, show care in the handling and a good staple. It classes from good middling to fair.

LUMBER.

The trade in sawed lumber with the West India Islands, which from local causes had fallen off materially last season, has resumed in a good degree its former activity and consequence, and the exports this year amount to 2,288,853 feet, against 692,146 feet the preceding season. The exports to Texas are 2,175,504 feet, which is about 700,000 feet more than last year, and the coastwise exports, including 153,825 feet sent to San Francisco, amounts to 2,085,317 feet—making a general aggregate of 7,691,712 feet,—more than double the quantity exported for the year ending first of September, 1849. We do not include in this account the lumber shipped to New-Orleans in licensed vessels, as we have no means of ascertaining its amount. It may be estimated at about 1,000,000 feet. This, it will be seen, is a very important branch of domestic industry, and it is capable of an indefinite extension.

NAVAL STORES.

The receipts of naval stores have increased largely over those of the preceding season, though as yet sufficient attention has not been turned to their production, and our market for these supplies, as yet, is but little known abroad. The total receipts of the season are 1,266 barrels spirits turpentine, worth 30 a 35 cents; 1,061 do. crude turpentine, $1,50; 3,404 do. rosin, 90 cents a $2,50; 277 do. pitch, $1,50 a $1,75, and 814 do. tar, $1,75 a $2. These articles, except such as were needed for domestic use, have been disposed of by shipments to New-York, New-Orleans, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Havana, Vera Cruz and Liverpool. The business is handsomely remunerative, and will soon attain to an importance commensurate with the extent and productiveness of our forests.

MISCELLANEOUS EXPORTS.

The domestic exports not included in our tables, are—104 casks and 185 barrels tallow; 25 tons iron; 430,000 shingles; 23,000 laths; 200 bbls. lime; 14 bales and 1,500 loose hides; 695 bbls. tar; 1,000 do. spirits turpentine; 1,030 crude turpentine; 215 do. pitch; 3,200 do. rosin; 247 bales rope cuttings; 238 sacks rice; 40,000 brick; 4,500 horns; 1,768 pieces leather; 4,300 bones; 293 hhds. and 48 bbls. sugar; 2,584 sacks corn; 233 ash logs; 54 pine masts; 16 yards; 2,752 deck plank; 167 beams; 1,421 square pieces timber; 6,500 oars; 4,100 hand-spikes; 74 empty tierces; 800 empty barrels; 1,604,368 staves, and 1,434 cedar logs.

RIVER RECEIPTS OF COTTON.

	1850.	1849.	1848.
Receipts from Alabama river	187,130	259,575	192,949
Do. from Tombigbee	101,208	175,254	182,505
Do. from Warrior River	56,267	75,448	53,686
By wagons, ferry, &c	6,347	8,429	7,196
Total	350,952	518,706	436,336

EXPORTS OF COTTON TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM MOBILE FOR TWO YEARS,

	Ending 31st Aug., 1850.			Ending 31st Aug., 1849.		
Where exported.	Bales.	Pounds.	Value.	Bales.	Pounds.	Value.
To G. Brit. in Am. ves.	60,382	30,676,559	$3,492,361 69	139,517	71,326,732	$4,249,707 50
Do. in Br. vessels	101,837	51,483,919	5,852,369 15	150,866	76,955,202	4,744,705 06
Total to G. Britain	162,219	82,160,478	$9,344,730 84	290,383	148,281,934	$8,994,502 56
France, in Am. ves.	39,968	20,385,173	$2,228,641 32	61,597	31,345,039	1,930,798 50
Do. Fr. vessels						
Total to France	39,968	20,385,173	$2,228,641 32	61,597	31,345,039	$1,930,798 50
Spain, in Am. vessels.	350	175,186	$21,724 76			
Do. Spanish vessels.	7,707	3,606,009	444,164 16	10,203	4,934,695	313,568 57
Total to Spain	8,057	3,781,195	$405,888 92	10,203	4,934,695	$313,568 57
To Russia				801	904,504	62,646 15
Holland				1,559	3,385,407	201,574 00
Belgium				9,462	4,287,254	262,963 01
Hamburg						
Sardinia	2,922	1,479,923	149,897 44	8,717	4,447,290	253,707 79
Austria				7,494	3,760,934	240,176 12
Cuba				1,125	636,523	40,781 50
Mexico	998	476,742	47,209 04			
Tot. to other for. ports	3,920	1,956,665	$197,106 48	34,158	17,421,912	$1,061,848 57
Grand total	214,164	108,283,511	$12,236,367 56	396,341	201,983,580	$12,

ABSTRACT OF THE VALUE OF FOREIGN EXPORTS

For the year 1849, *and first six months in* 1850:

		1849.	Value.
1st quarter,	in American vessels	$2,769,113 03	
	in Foreign vessels	3,602,185 12	$6,371,298 15
2d quarter,	in American vessels	$2,799,569 00	
	in Foreign vessels	1,288,263 00	$4,087,832 00
3d quarter,	in American vessels	$229,563 00	
	in Foreign vessels		$229,563 00
4th quarter,	in American vessels	$1,907,969 00	
	in Foreign vessels	403,658 00	$2,341,627 00
	Total for Exports for 1849		$13,000,320 15

FIRST SIX MONTHS IN 1850.

1st quarter,	in American vessels	$1,094,323 00	
	in Foreign vessels	3,768,140 00	$4,862,463 00
2d quarter,	in American vessels	$1,369,660 00	
	in Foreign vessels	1,771,545 00	$3,141,205 00
	Total Foreign Exports for six months		$8,003,668 00

ABSTRACT OF THE VALUE OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE,

Imported into Mobile in 1849, *and first six months in* 1850.

		1849.	Value.
1st quarter,	in Foreign vessels	$43,479 00	
	in American vessels	31,167 00	$74,646 00
2d quarter,	In Foreign vessels		
	in American vessels	8,474 00	$8,474 00
3d quarter,	in Foreign vessels	$177,939 00	
	in American vessels		$177,939 00
4th quarter,	in Foreign vessels	$227,251 00	
	in American vessels	101,347 00	$328,598 00
	Total Foreign Imports for 1849		$589,657 00

FIRST SIX MONTHS IN 1850.

1st quarter,	in Foreign vessels	$260,628 00	
	in American vessels	15,629 00	$276,257 00
2d quarter,	in Foreign vessels	$103,451 00	
	in American vessels	158 00	$103,609 00
	Total Foreign Imports for six months		$379,866 00

NUMBER OF VESSELS LOADED AT THIS PORT DURING THE YEAR 1849–'50.

	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.
American	55	61	82	117	315
British	36	12	—	—	48
Spanish	—	2	22	—	24
Sardinian	2	—	1	—	3
French	1	—	—	—	1
Dutch	—	Galliot 1	-	—	1
	94	76	105	117	392

Four British and one French ship loaded with timber for France, and one Dutch galliot for Holland. Six barks, 25 brigs, and 87 schooners, loaded lumber, &c., mostly for Texas and West Indies.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM THE PORT OF MOBILE, FOR THE LAST EIGHT YEARS.

PORTS.	'49–'50	'48–'49	'47–'48	'46–'47	'45–'46	'44–'45	'43–'44	'42–'43
Liverpool	151667.	267477.	212715.	123792.	193287.	238038.	189539.	254301
Hull			1650.	1073.	1400.	1470.		
Glasgow and Greenock	10552.	22906.	13814.	4845.	13395.	28581.	14601.	26088
Cowes, Cork, &c.				1445		760		2993
Total to Great Britain.	162219	290383	228179	131154	208082	268849	204140	283382
Havre	39968.	61597.	60328.	39293.	63878.	66928.	51955.	53471
Bordeaux								
Marseilles					448.	1068		100
Rouen, Nantz, &c			1509		2495.	933.	1050.	1850
Total to France	39968	61597	61832	39293	66821	68929	53005	55421
Amsterdam		2279			4896.	7426		.1171
Rotterdam		2625.	626			904.	881.	1400
Antwerp		7844.	6114.	2613.	3836.	5506.	2567.	1950
Ghent		618.	1588.	2680.	2536.	3685.	1050.	3511
Genoa and Trieste	2922.	16211.	5988.	6645.	4373.	11479.	2889.	13853
Hamburg and Bremen			7825		3093.	1110.	1796	
Cuba and Barcelona	8057.	11328.	6929.	7836.	6485.	13950.	2914.	4494
Mexico and Stockholm	998						S 284.	M 830
St. Petersburg		1801			1613.	6212.		
China						2664		
Flushing and a market		6155						
Total to other For. ports	11977	44361	29070	19774	26832	52936	12381	27209
New-York	41175.	37418.	48117.	45548.	46025.	57970.	84676.	55422
Boston	26378.	45391.	38815.	33496.	34197.	37883.	34082.	24198
Providence	14602.	13712.	11022.	12279.	13206.	11836.	13719.	8084
Philadelphia	2380.	2944.	1444.	3205.	2779.	4639.	6382.	5840
Baltimore	3190.	4977.	3574.	4661.	5168.	4357.	6329.	4922
New-Orleans	40016.	35164.	10805.	16431.	7163.	12125.	47577.	10687
Other American	1131.	1486.	4391.	1181.	7360.	3272.	2914.	6729
Total American	128872	141000	118168	116801	115898	131282	195579	115882
Grand Total	343036	537431	437219	307022	417633	531996	465205	481894

RECAPITULATION.

	'49–'50	'48–'49	'47–'48	'46–'47	'45–'46	'44–'45	'43–'44	'42–'43
Great Britain	162219.	290383.	228179.	131154.	208082.	268849.	204140.	283382
France	39968.	61597.	61832.	39293.	66821.	68929.	53005.	55421
Other Foreign ports	11977.	44361.	29070.	19774.	26832.	52936.	12381.	27209
Total Foreign	214164	396341	319081	190221	301735	390714	269526	366014
U. States ports	128872	141000	118168	116801	115898	131282	195679	115882
Total	343036	537431	437249	307022	417633	521996	465205	481894

VIEW OF THE IMPORTS

Of the following Staple Articles, imported into the port of Mobile.

ARTICLES.	'49–'50	'48–'49	'47–'48	'46–'47	'45–'46	'44–'45
Bagging, assorted, pcs	25252..	29780..	28770..	12862..	28268..	20847
Bale Rope, coils	22265..	27654..	28033..	15690..	21995..	23689
Bacon, hhds	9183..	5981..	12623..	10542..	9930..	5076
Coffee, bags	21790..	22862..	24593..	30014..	26299..	23559
Candles, boxes						
Flour, bbls	67668..	51411..	38993..	32701..	46559..	68818
Grain—Corn, sacks	24314..	40146..	21801..	28970..	80157..	58285
Oats, sacks	11123..	17105..	13832..	10438..	9491..	[illegible]
Hay, bales	19409..	17838..	8938..	10552..	[illegible]	
Lard, kegs	10582..	3842..	8250..	9453..		
Lime, bbls	18669..	15781..	12500..	9514..		

IMPORTS—CONTINUED.

ARTICLES.	'49–'50	'48–'49	'47–'48	'46–'47	'45–'46	'44 '45
Molasses, bbls.	17202	12793	17842	12464	14698	10353
Potatoes—Irish, bbls.	17993	17679	18257	18814	18511	19636
Pork, bbls.	7517	5496	12991	8428	10406	2870
Rice, tcs.	1308	1012	924	981	1089	1121
Sugar, hhds.	7082	5667	6822	5789	8057	5489
Salt, sacks.	131108	156107	88698	91365	95901	151801
Whiskey, bbls.	19077	22991	20914	18309	20695	28314

☞ The imports of most articles of provisions, and of some of the groceries, are short of the actual receipts, the manifests of cargoes frequently failing to specify the articles.

COTTON CROP OF SOUTH ALABAMA FOR TWENTY-EIGHT YEARS.

Years.	Bales.	An. Increase.	An. Decrease.	Years.	Bales.	An. Increase.	An. Decrease.
1823	49061	3638		1837	232685		4900
1824	44924		4137	1838	309807	77122	
1825	58283	3359		1839	251742		58065
1826	74379	16096		1840	445725	193983	
1827	89779	15400		1841	317642		128083
1828	71155		18624	1842	318315	673	
1829	80329	9174		1843	481714	163366	
1830	102684	22355		1844	467990		13724
1831	113075	10391		1845	517196	49206	
1832	125605	12530		1846	421966		95230
1833	129366	3761		1847	323462		98504
1834	149513	20147		1848	440336	116874	
1835	197847	48334		1849	518706	78370	
1836	237590	36745		1850	350952		167754

3.—NEW-ORLEANS TRADE—1849*–'50.

WESTERN PRODUCE.

Our limited space will only enable us to notice briefly a few of the leading articles under this head. A remarkable feature of the season is the very large falling off in the receipts of Flour, Wheat and Indian Corn. This has resulted mainly from deficient crops, but it is also attributable, in an important degree. to the increased facilities for reaching the Atlantic markets, through the canals and railroads which Northern enterprise is constantly multiplying and extending, and by which large quantities of produce are diverted from this point, where they have heretofore been directed for sale or transhipment. The arrivals of Flour from the West, since the first of September last, are only 591,986 bbls., against 1,013,177 barrels last year, and 1,617,675 barrels in 1846–'47; of Indian Corn equal to 2,750,000 bushels, against 4,785,000 bushels last year, and 7,065,000 bushels in 1846–'47; of Wheat equal to 110,000 bushels against 475,000 bushels last year, and 1,670,000 bushels in 1846–'47; of Corn Meal 5,187 bbls. against 12,097 barrels last year, and 88,159 barrels in 1846–'47. The total exports of Flour amount to 211,750 barrels, against 778,370 barrels last year. Of this quantity 5,066 barrels were shipped to Great Britain, 22,365 to the West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports. Of Indian Corn, the total exports are equal to about 1,060,000 bushels, against 3,662,000 last year. Of this quantity 715,000 bushels have been shipped to Great Britain and Ireland, 75,000 to the West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports. Of the small quantity of Wheat only a few hundred bushels have been exported to Great Britain, the greater portion having been taken for our city flour mills, or for "seed wheat," in Alabama and Georgia, where the crops last year were almost wholly destroyed by the remarkable frost of April. The annexed table, the items of which we take from the "New-York Shipping List," shows a very large decrease in the exports of Breadstuffs from this country to Great Britain and Ireland, as compared with last year, the period being from September to August in each year:

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* Continued from November Number.

		1849-'50.	1848-'49.
Flour	barrels	392,742	1,056,431
Corn Meal	"	6,086	81,314
Wheat	bushels	432,939	1,077,585
Corn	"	4,813,373	12,536,758

The very large falling off in the receipts at this port has produced a considerably higher range of prices than was realized last year, notwithstanding the very limited amount taken for export. The market generally was characterized by great steadiness up to the month of June, when a light stock caused so large an advance in prices, that some parties in the Eastern cities were tempted to make shipments here, doubtless with a hope of profit. The markets of the West, however, happened to be somewhat more available for supply, and we are under the impression that the imports from the East could not have yielded very satisfactory returns. We have no space to follow the market in its fluctuations, and must content ourselves with stating that the lowest point for Ohio, &c., was in July and August, ($4,00,) and the highest in June, ($7,75.) The highest and lowest points for extra St. Louis, &c., were $5 in August, and $8,75 in June. The extremes for Indian Corn have been 40 c. per bushel in December, and 85 c. in portions of April, May, June and July. Of Wheat, only two or three limited sales took place during the season, and these were at a range of 70 a 90 c. per bushel. Nearly the whole of the comparatively small quantity received was for the use of the city mills, or to go forward. We are pleased to notice that the grain crops of the West are declared to be unusually abundant, and we hope to see a large increase of supplies at this point. In Pork and Beef the transactions have been large, the quantity received, in all packages and in bulk, being about equal to the receipts of last year, and the average of prices has been about the same, though the extremes have not been as great. The lowest point for Pork was in November, when Mess was quoted at $8,37½ a $8,50, and Prime $7,37½ a $7,50. The highest point was in July, when Mess attained to $12, and Prime to $9,75 per barrel. In Beef, the range has been between $10 and $15 per barrel for Mess, and $6,50 and $13 for Prime—the highest in September and the lowest in December. The supply of Lard has been somewhat larger than last year, but the demand has contined generally good, especially for export, and with less fluctuation the average of prices has been nearly equal to that of last year. The extremes have been 5 to 8 cents per lb., the lowest rate having been reached at several periods during the year, but the highest only in the month of June. The total exports (all packages being reduced to kegs) are equal to 1,554,849 kegs, against 1,249,691 kegs last year. Of this quantity 696,259 kegs were exported to foreign ports, against 381,996 kegs last year, Great Britain having taken 425,830 kegs against 196,631 kegs last year.

LEAD.

The course of trade in this article has undergone a marked change within a few years past. For several years past the product of the mines greatly exceeded the home demand for consumption, and considerable exports were made to Europe, particularly to France. In 1845-'46 the product was greatest, our receipts at this port being 785,000 pigs, and this was also the season of the largest foreign export, the amount reaching 175,000 pigs. The average price that year was about $3,50 per 100 pounds. Since then there has been a rapid falling off in the product, so far as shown by the receipts here, while at the same time the home consumption has increased, until, instead of being exporters, we have not only absorbed the whole product of our own mines, but in turn have become large importers from Europe. We have no data to show the exact amount of foreign Lead imported into the Northern ports this season, but from the best information we can gather, we presume that it does not fall short of 200,0
receipts at this port since the first of September, are 415,400 pi
557 pigs during same period last year, and the exports are 41

which has been for Northern ports, except 451 pigs to Yucatan and 1,000 to Havre. In regard to the course of the market, we have to remark that, as has been the case for one or two previous years, only a very small proportion of the receipts has changed hands here, the great bulk being merely in transit to Northern ports. Occasional sales have taken place, however, and the extreme prices of the season have been $3,87½ per 100 lbs. in December, and $5 in April.

HEMP.

In our last annual remarks upon this article, we stated that the accounts from the West respecting the growing crops were favorable, and that there was likely to be an increase in the shipments to the Atlantic markets. The result is that the receipts are nearly double those of last year, being 34,792 bales since the first of September last, against 19,856 bales during same period in 1848–'49. Of this quantity very little was sold in this market, the great bulk having been forwarded to the Northern ports. In the few sales that took place the extreme range of prices was $90 to $140 per ton for dew-rotted, the highest in October and the lowest in June. The total exports since the first of September amount to 36,035 bales, as follows: for Liverpool 1,218, for New-York 23,845, Boston 7,663, Philadelphia 2,093, and Baltimore 1,216. The following table exhibits the comparative receipts and the average prices for a series of years:

	Bales.	Per Ton.
1842–'43	14,873	$80 00
1843–'44	38,062	$66 00
1844–'45	46,274	$60 00
1845–'46	30,980	$60 00
1846–'47	60,238	$90 00
1847–'48	21,584	$115 00
1848–'49	19,856	$132 00
1849–'50	34,792	$109 00

From our inquiries respecting the growing crop, there would seem to be no doubt that the supply will be materially short of that of last year, particularly in Kentucky, where the crop suffered greatly from long drought. In Missouri the promise is said to be better, but it is supposed there will be a lack of laborers in the cutting and preparing for market, owing to the extensive emigration to California.

COFFEE.

The operations during the past season in this leading article among our foreign imports, have been marked by some extraordinary features. The news of a large deficiency in the product of Brazil, and a consequent falling off in the imports into the United States, gave an early impulse to speculation, and prices gradually but steadily advanced from 6½ cents in July, 1849, up to 14¾ cents in February last, when the stock in first and second hands was about 60,000 bags. This was the highest point of the market, and as speculators rested here, and as consumers bought very sparingly, while at the same time fresh imports almost daily added largely to the stock, (in the middle of March it was 98,000 bags,) a turn took place in the market, and the decline was much more rapid than the advance, the price in May having run down to 7½ cents. At this point consumers bought more freely, and speculators again came forward, which not only prevented a further depression, but caused a rapid recovery of a portion of the lost ground, the current rate at the close of June being 9¾ cents per pound. Since then there have been but slight fluctuations, and the closing rates for Rio are [illegible] a 9¾ cents per lb. The first cargo of the new crop arrived on the 18th of September, which was earlier than usual, and the greater portion was sold at [illegible] cents per lb. The following statements show the imports, stocks, &c.:

Estimated stock out of grocers' hands, on 1st September, 1849, of [illegible]		bags....6,000
Imported direct from Rio de Janeiro	225,013	
From Laguayra, &c.	20,627	245,640
Received coastwise for sale, (estimated)		51,200
Making a supply of		bags..302,840

Against a supply of 360,970 bags last year, or a decrease of 58,130 bags. In the direct imports from Rio there is a decrease, as compared with last year, of 74,116 bags, while in the imports from Cuba, Laguayra, &c., and coastwise for sale, there is an increase of 15,486 bags—making the actual deficiency in supply, as above, 58,630 bags. Of the direct imports there have been shipped to Europe and coastwise 5,286 bags, and the present stock of all kinds, out of grocers' hands, is estimated at 28,000 bags—showing that the quantity taken for the consumption of the West and South has been 269,554 bags, against 354,970 bags last year, or a decrease of 85,416 bags.

DIRECT IMPORTS OF COFFEE, SUGAR AND SALT.

		1849-'50.	1848-'49.	1847-'48.
Coffee, Havana	bags	20,627	16,341	8,590
Coffee, Rio	"	225,013	299,129	239,371
Sugar, Havana	boxes	18,843	14,775	12,574
Salt, Liverpool	sacks	468,932	508,517	300,943
Salt, Turks Island, &c	bush	583,183	249,001	361,184

AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

1.—PRODUCT AND CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN THE NEW WORLD.

The quantity of sugars on hand on the 1st of August, in the principal markets of the world, was only about one-half of that on hand at the same date in 1849. This deficit has created some surprise among those engaged in the trade; but a moment's reflection will show that a different state of things could hardly be expected, from the progress of population and consumption. The difference or deficiency does not proceed, as many no doubt suppose, from any great falling off in the production, or from short crops in any part of the world, but from the rapid increase of consumption in the United States and Great Britain. In 1840, England consumed two hundred thousand tons of sugar, and in 1849 this had increased to eight hundred and seventeen thousand tons, caused, principally, by the addition annually of four hundred thousand to the population of that country, and the low prices ruling part of that time. Up to 1846, prices ruled comparatively high; but since the passage of the law of that year, there has been a great reduction in prices, and an increased use of this necessary of life has been the consequence; but allowing only the same rate since these depressed prices, there are still ten thousand hogsheads, of one thousand pounds each, which are required every year more than the preceding one to supply her wants.

If the increase in the United States from births and emigration amounts, as may be presumed, to one million per annum, and the consumption be thirty-five pounds each person, including the vast amount of sweets manufactured in various ways, there would be a call for 35,000 hogsheads of similar size, to meet the demand, forming in the aggregate 45,000 casks of sugar more in 1850 than in 1849.

There is no country in which the crops have decidedly fallen off to any remarkable extent. Short they may have been, but not so much as to have caused the present advance in prices. The wants of an additional population have been left aside, although, in our opinion, quite sufficient to have produced the scarcity which extends itself all over the country.

In the present state of Cuba, it can hardly be expected that the island should produce more sugar in future than she now does; and the circumstances remaining the same, she must in a few years feel the want of laborers, as it is said that the cholera has carried off 25,000 slaves. It is fair to conclude that, with the friendly feeling which now exists between Spain and England, the British ministry have eagerly seized the opportunity to press th the slave trade upon the Cabinet of Madrid, which could so eas an expected naval force of upwards of twenty vessels of wa

In Porto Rico years have elapsed since any importations have occurred from Africa, nor is there any deficiency of field labor. The free and white population amounts to far beyond 500,000, while the slaves do not exceed 47,000. This, while adding to the security of property, places at his disposal as much free aid as the planter desires, at very moderate wages.—*N. Y. Herald.*

2—COTTON GROWING FACILITIES IN CEYLON.

A communication from Badula, in Ceylon, dated 8th July, gives the following sketch of the cotton growing facilities there:

"I have delayed acknowledging receipt of your kind letter of 18th March, hoping to have sent you samples of the various qualities of cotton grown in the island, but at this season these are rather difficult to be got, and I must defer sending them till next or following mail. So little is known of the productions of this island at home, that, I dare say, I may as well begin by telling you that the natives have cultivated cotton from time immemorial, but the production has been barely sufficient to supply the native manufacturer. It is grown over the greater part of the island—principally the northern and eastern portions of it. As to cultivation, it gets none, being sown by the natives along with their grain crops, and receives no care or attention; they simply content themselves with plucking the crops as they come to maturity. Samples of a superior quality from Bourbon seed have been raised at Jaffna and Batticalou, but the cultivation was abandoned, and it was found to interfere with that of the cocoa-nut tree. A parcel raised at Jaffna, sent home some years ago, sold for, I believe, 6d per lb.; and a sample I grew at Batticalou was valued in Liverpool at the same price. Mr. Fennie, one of the American cotton planters, who is in the service of the East India Company, with a view to the improvement of the production in Hindostan, and who some time ago visited this island, says, that in every essential—in soil, temperature, and climate—this island is calculated to produce cotton equal in quality and cheaper in price than that of the United States. His words are—'I am of opinion, from what I saw of this climate and soil, that Ceylon will produce the article of cotton equally well—and, when the comparatively small amount of capital required is considered, I doubt not it may even produce the article cheaper than we can in America, where a large sum must be laid out at once for labor, and where the expense of food and clothing is much greater than the imported labor of Ceylon costs, besides the risk of losing the laborers by death after they are purchased.' If any of your friends should think of doing anything with cotton cultivation here, I shall be happy to give them every assistance. I have lands of my own well adapted for its cultivation; and I have no doubt government would be disposed to give every facility for acquiring lands for such a purpose. I believe that more than one-half the island is, by soil and climate, adapted for it; so that there is field enough, the island containing about 24,700 square miles, with a population of only 1,500,000. One great advantage of this island for carrying on cotton cultivation with English capital would be the facilities for obtaining both land and labor cheaply and easily. The former cannot be obtained in Hindostan, where there is a population, at anything like a reasonable price, as there is no unoccupied land, and the natives devoting their fields in the first place to the cultivation of grain, will on no account allow any other cultivation to interfere with that which supplies them food; so that it is only to a comparatively small extent that they cultivate cotton, indigo, or other produce for sale, to enable them to purchase a few superfluities. Now, where plenty of land is to be got, there is no population, or the soil and climate are also unpropitious; and the inhabitants will not emigrate from the rich and over-populated grain districts, to work for a less rate of pay than they can obtain in Ceylon or Mauritius; neither will they cultivate cotton any more than sugar or indigo, unless they obtain advances before even the land is ploughed; but in no tropical country can any dependence be placed by European capatalists on the indigenous population, for steady work; for, being all possessed of paddy fields and other lands, they will only work for European capitalists when their own fields do not require their labor. From what I have myself seen—and I believe it is generally admitted—both soil and climate of Ceylon are superior to that of India; whilst from the facility of its communication with China and the east coast of Africa, it possesses the advantage of obtaining cheap and abundant supplies of labor from those countries, as well as from India, from which they emigrate in great numbers, and can at all times be had to work for 15s. to 18s. per month."

3—PRODUCTION OF COTTON IN JAMAICA.

I think I may announce to you now, that cotton cultivation has been commenced with an earnestness from which I augur great success. The press is almost universal in advocating the propriety of it. A company has been formed, including among its members the Chief Justice, with a capital of £2,000, in order to test the question. I have little doubt of a favorable result. A newspaper on the north side of the island,—the *Trelawny*,—whose proprietor speaks from practical experience, stoutly asserts, notwithstanding counter statements have been made, that the article can be produced ready for shipment at two pence per pound, and we have two crops a year, whilst, I believe, in the States they have but one. There is now here a gentleman from Georgia, who is said to understand well the cultivation of the cotton plant, and he has readily afforded information wherever it is sought of him. His name is Williams. The encouragement given to the undertaking by the British press is not without its beneficial effect.

4.—IMPROVED SUGAR PROCESS.

RESULTS OF EMANCIPATIAN IN WEST INDIES; REMEDIES, &c. &c.

We made the acquaintance last summer in New-York, of Emanuel David, a citizen of France, who has been engaged for eighteen years in the culture of beet sugar, and for eight years was employed as manager of a sugar estate in Venezuela. Mr. Davy claims to have made an important discovery, tending materially to diminish the quantity of labor required in this branch of industry, and if he could achieve anything like his promises, would bring about a material revolution. For our own part, we are always disposed to doubt in regard to these great discoveries, but it would at the same time be very unphilosophical not to give them a patient hearing.

We therefore publish the following note which he has addressed to us, with the remark, that the author may be found in New-York; that he proposes soon to take patents for his discovery, and to publish a work, in preparation, upon the culture and manufacture of sugar from the cane and the beet. He also desires to test his system in actual practice, if capital and facilities be furnished him:

To J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.—

The abolition of slavery in many colonies of the West Indies, has affected, in a very serious manner, the interests of those who are engaged in the culture and in the manufacture of the cane sugar.

The British Government took the lead in this movement; influenced not so much by considerations of humanity, as by motives of interest; purposing eventually to monopolize in the East India colonies the culture and the manufacture of the sugar.

The abolition of slavery in the British islands may be considered as a mere matter of figures. Great Britain viewed it with reference to nothing but her cash-book. She considered that the indemnity to be paid to the planter would be thousands of pounds—that the interests of her East Indian dependencies would be benefited thousands of pounds, and this would h [illegible] in favor of the East Indies. She said: let the law for the abol [illegible] the emancipation of eight hundred thousand slaves in West [illegible]

The following remarks are applicable to the colonies gene [illegible] to those of Spain, where the sugar cane is cultivated, and

In these colonies, enjoying a fine climate and a fruitful soil, two things oppose the introduction of improved methods as well for the culture as for the manufacture of sugar—the first is, that the planters, instead of residing on their estates, spend their life in the cities; the other is, that the administration of the estates is left altogether in the hands of the major-domos or overseers, who are generally incrusted into prejudices; zealous partisans of the *statu quo*, they follow always in the hackneyed path, and constantly oppose the least change in the accustomed mode of procedure, for fear that they shall be under the necessity of making themselves acquainted with those new processes, which will not at all increase their yearly pay. One is at a loss to conceive, how it is that the improved methods of cultivating and of fabricating sugar have not found their way into all the plantations of the West Indies. However, the benefits which the planter would receive, would be immense; for, by using improved instruments, better processes for cultivating sugar cane and for manufacturing cane juice, they must make great saving of manual labor and greatly reduce the number of their hands. These new methods would enable them to carry on their present operations with a very few hands, and give an opportunity for selling he superabundance, or they might keep their present number, and increase the operations of them.

What remedies can be found for the wounds, which sap the very lifeblood of the colonies? The principal remedies will be these: 1st. The residence of the planters on their estates: 2d. The dispensing with the office of major-domo.

This would be only to follow the example of the manufacturers of beet root in Europe, who are, at the same time, farmers, and who reside on their estates, and direct themselves the work without the aid of a manager, who only increases the expense without profit. The residence of the planters on their domains would familiarize them with the modes of culture and of manufacture pursued, and render them enlightened. And whenever any improved method of culture or of manufacture should be brought to their notice, they would not oppose its introduction into their estates; but, on the other hand, stimulated by the desire of increasing their resources, they would make trial of it, without having to ask the approval of the major-domo. The suppression of the office of major-domo would have also the happy effect of introducing beneficial changes in the management of sugar plantations. The expenses would be diminished at least eight hundred dollars, the wages of the major-domo, and in this event the planters would be under the necessity of becoming themselves practical farmers and manufacturers.

In certain countries of the temperate zone, the emancipation of the slaves has had an effect, in reference to the culture of sugar, different from that which it has had in the torrid regions; in the former, the production can be sufficiently increased; in the latter, the result is different. The working all day in the sun is such, that no European could endure it. The negro is unwilling to engage in such work, where the fertility of the soil could supply all the wants of his family with only two hours' exertion on his part per day. The emancipated negro works ordinarily one or two hours early in the morning, and nothing can induce him to work any more; hence, habits of idleness; hence, unrestrained excesses; hence, vagabondism and beggary; not because there is no opportunity for getting work, but because they have no disposition to work; hence, coalitions, although coalitions enter but little into the ideas of the free negroes, and no longer promote the interests of the Creoles; hence, incendiaries; hence, violations of rights of property. These are necessary consequences. The negro population, which, but yesterday, was out of the pale of civilization, has been to-day in some sort brought into the human society, but without preparatory education.

The emancipated negro knows nothing of what constitutes true liberty; he knows nothing of its starting point, or of its end. The negro, liberated without previous training, is like a prisoner, who has been for twenty years in his cell, and who regaining his liberty, is now brought out into the light of day, and who not only has no pleasure in the light, but runs great risk of losing the use of his eyes altogether. In this case, the blindness is physical; in regard to the negro, it is a moral blindness. The fault is not all the slave's, but in part belongs to the mother country.

Before emancipation, what did the mother country say? She said: the negroes are not prepared for liberty. And when this preparation for liberty was urged upon the government, it was violently resisted. They refused to adopt measures, whereby the slaves could have been gradually accustomed to the duties, which would result from an entire emancipation. The government is therefore responsible for the evils, which she took no measures to prevent, and which she has thus practically brought upon the islands.

The labor of the free negro is more capricious, less regular, more costly, and, would one believe it, performed with less intelligence. The time spent generally in all the operations of the culture of the sugar-cane, but especially in planting and harvesting it, is longer. The planter is under the necessity of paying every day, free laborers, with ready money, and, indeed, as it is said vulgarly, of keeping always his hand in his purse. In this state of affairs, he renders good service to the sugar interest, who shall introduce improved, economical, and advantageous methods. But, before particularizing what are those new methods, it is necessary to premise some generalities needed for understanding the matter. Among the operations, which concern the culture of sugar-cane, none perhaps needs improvement so much, and none is more unimproved, in all parts of the world, where the sugar-cane is cultivated, than the weeding of the cane plants. This question receives the greater importance from the fact, that slaves are employed more or less in all countries where the sugar-cane is cultivated, and experience shows, that weeding employs about one-third of the hands of a plantation, or, speaking in the colonial language, one-third of the *esclavitude*. Thus, on a plantation where there are three hundred hands, one hundred usually are employed in the weeding of the cane during the whole term of its growth. It appears, then, that the expenses of weeding are considerable, and deserve to fix the attention of planters. The expenses to which the weeding gives rise, result proportionately from the system of planting the cane. To the planting of the cane, therefore, all attention should be given; for it is the pivot on which all the operations of sugar-cane culture turns. Therefore, to adopt an economical mode of planting, is to secure an economical method of weeding the plant. Such an economical method of planting has been found. It does not present great difficulties, but only requires care. Its results are very efficient, and its benefits are considerable. By means of the method of planting, and of the instruments here referred to, one man, with one or two horses properly trained, can do the work of thirty hands at least, taking the tasks (tareas) usual in the colonies, as the standard of day's work. Consequently three slaves could, with this method, do the work of one hundred slaves. This economical system allows the planters either to enlarge their plantations proportionately, or sell the slaves that would not be needed any longer. In the colonies, where slavery has been abolished, the planter will be put, by this system, in a very satisfactory position, since they would be free from the necessity of paying the day laborers obtained from the neighborhood, since this work would be done by ploughmen on the plantation, paid by the year. This system presents the advantage of giving to the cane-plant, during its growth, all necessary weeding at the time when it is needed, a thing which, according to my own observation, is rarely done, at present, in the greater part of the plantations. It may be proper to say, that this system will not at all injure the irrigation of the plants. The advantages of it are proportionate to the duration of the sugar-cane. Thus, in countries where, by reason of climate and of soil, the cane lives, with benefit, only two or three years, these advantages are proportionate; but they are greater in countries where canes live to ten, fifteen or even twenty years, without degenerating and diminishing.

The author of this new system possesses great experience in the culture and manufacture, not only of the sugar-cane, but also of the beet-root. He is willing to found a large rural establishment, in which the European method of culture could be joined with the tropical. This, amongst other things, would render the new soil mellow in a shorter time, and improve, t ar-
cane, also the cane-juice, and also the spirits that might be
tablishment there would be: first, the manufacturing of sug
struction of rural implements; third, another kind of ma

the trash, as manure, would be conveyed of itself, and without expense, to the cane-fields. This last consideration is very important, because there is always on a plantation a considerable quantity of excellent manure, ready for immediate use. The bagass, in localities properly situated, could be made available for purposes far more profitable than fuel, and this, by means of modification in the mode of extracting the cane-juice, without changing however the cane-mill.

SONG OF THE CANE FIELDS.

We conclude our extracts from Dr. Grainger's Poem upon the Sugar Cane and West Indies, which could not have been otherwise than interesting to our readers.

THE VARIOUS AFRICAN TRIBES AND THEIR VIRTUES.

In mind and aptitude for useful toil,
The negroes differ—Muse, that difference sing.
Whether to wield the hoe, or guide the plane,
Or for domestic uses thou intend'st
The sunny *Lybian* from what clime they spring,
It not imports, if youth and strength be theirs.
Yet those from *Congo's* wide extended plains,
Through which the long Zaire winds with crystal stream,
Where lavish Nature sends indulgent forth
Fruits of high flavor, and spontaneous seeds
Of bland nutritious quality, ill bear
The toilsome field ; but boast a docile mind,
And happiness of features. These, with care,
Be taught each nice mechanic art, or trained
To household offices ; their ductile souls
With all thy care and all thy gold, repay.
But, if the labors of the field demand
Thy chief attention, and the ambrosial cane
Thou long'st to see, with spiry frequence, shade
Many an acre—planter, choose the slave
Who sails from barren climes ; where want alone,
Offspring of rude necessity, compels
The sturdy native oft to plant the soil,
Or stem vast rivers for his daily food.
Such are the children of the golden coast ;
Such the *papaws*, of negroes far the best ;
And such the numerous tribes that skirt the shore
From rapid Volta to the distant Rey.
But, planter, from what coast soe'er they sail,
Buy not the old ; they ever sullen prove :
With heartfelt anguish, they lament their home ;
They will not, cannot work ; they never learn
Thy native language : they are prone to ails :
And oft by suicide their being end.
Must thou from Afric reinforce thy gang ?—
Let health and youth their every sinew form ;
Clear roll their ample eye, their tongue be red,
Broad swell their chest, their shoulders wide expand,
Not prominent their belly; clean and strong
Their thighs and legs, in just proportion rise.
Such soon will brave the fervors of the clime ;
And free from ails, that kill thy negro-train,
A useful servitude will long support.
  Yet, if thine own, thy children's life be dear,
Buy not a *Cormantee*, though healthy, young.
Of breed too generous for the servile field,
They, born to freedom in their native land,
Choose death before dishonorable bonds ;
Or, fired with vengeance, at the midnight hour,
Sudden they seize thine unsuspecting watch,
And thine own poniard bury in thy breast.
  At home, the men, in many a sylvan realm,
Their rank tobacco, charm of sauntering minds,
From clayey tubes inhale ; or, vacant beat
For prey the forest ; or, in war's dread ranks,
Their country's foes affront ; while, in the field,
Their wives plant rice, or yams, or lofty maize,
Fell hunger to repel. Be these thy choice :
They, hardy, with the labors of the cane
Soon grow familiar ; while unusual toil,
And new severities, their husbands kill.

  The slaves from *Minnah* are of stubborn breed :
But, when the bill, or hammer, they affect,
They soon perfection reach. But fly, with care,
The *Moco* nation ; they themselves destroy.

THE NEGRO'S CONSOLATION.

  Nor negro, at thy destiny repine,
Though doom'd to toil from dawn to setting sun.
How far more pleasant is thy rural task
Than theirs who sweat, sequester'd from the day,
In dark tartarean caves, sunk far beneath
The earth's dark surface ; where sulphureous flames,
Oft from their vapoury prisons bursting wild,
To dire explosion give the cavern'd deep,
And in dread ruin all its inmates whelm !—
Nor fateful only is the bursting flame :
The exhalations of the deep dug mine,
Though slow, shake from their wing as sure a death.

With what intense severity of pain,
Hath the afflicted Muse, in Scotia, seen
The miner's rack'd, who toil for fatal lead !
What cramps, what palsies shake their feeble limbs,
Who, on the margin of the rocky Drave,
Trace silver's fluent ore ! Yet white men, these !
How far more happy ye, than those poor slaves,
Who, whilom, under native, gracious chiefs,
Incas and emperors, long time enjoy'd
Mild government, with every sweet of life
In blissful climates ! See them dragg'd in chains,
By proud insulting tyrants, to the mines
Which once they call'd their own, and then despised !
See, in the mineral bosom of their land,
How hard they toil! how soon their youthful limbs
Feel the decrepitude of age ! how soon
Their teeth desert their sockets ! and how soon
Shaking paralysis unstrings their frame !
Yet scarce, e'en then, are they allow'd to view
The glorious god of day, of whom they beg,

With earnest, hourly supplications, death;
Yet death slow comes, to torture them the more!
With these compared, ye sons of Afric say,
How far more happy is your lot! Bland health,
Of ardent eye, and limb robust, attends
Your custom'd labor; and, should sickness seize,
With what solicitude are ye not nursed!
Ye negroes, then, your pleasing task pursue,
And, by your toil, deserve your master's care.
When first your blacks are novel to the hoe,
Study their humors; some, soft soothing words;
Some, presents; and some, menaces subdue;
And some I've known, so subborn is their kind,
Whom blows, alas, could win alone to toil.

KINDNESS TO SLAVES.

Howe'er insensate some may deem their slaves,
Nor 'bove the bestial rank; far other thoughts
The Muse, soft daughter of humanity!
Will ever entertain. The Ethiop knows,
The Ethiop feels, when treated like a man;
Nor grudges, should necessity compel,
By day, by night, to labor for his lord.
Not less inhuman, than unthrifty those,
Who, half the year's rotation round the sun,
Deny subsistence to their laboring slaves.
But would'st thou see thy negro-train increase
Free from disorders, and thine acres clad
With groves of sugar, every week dispense,
Of English beans, or Carolinian rice,
Ierne's beef, or Pennsylvanian flour;
Newfoundland cod, or herrings from the main,
That howls tempestuous round the Scotian isles.
Yet some there are so lazily inclined,
And so neglectful of their food, that thou,
Would'st thou preserve them from the jaws of death,
Daily their wholesome viands must prepare:
With these let all the young, and childless old,
And all the morbid share; so Heaven will bless,
With manifold increase, thy costly care.
Suffice not this; to every slave assign
Some mountain ground; or, if waste, broken land
To thee belong, that broken land divide.
This let them cultivate, one day, each week;
And there raise yams, and there cassada's root,
From a good demon's staff cassada sprang,
Tradition says, and Caribbees believe;
Which into three the white-robed genius broke,
And bade them plant, their hunger to repel.
There let Angola's bloomy bush supply,
For many a year, with wholesome pulse their board.
There let the bonavist, his fringed pods
Throw liberal o'er the prop; while ochra bears
Aloft his slimy pulp, and help disdains.
There let potatoes mantle o'er the ground,
Sweet as the cane-juice is the root they bear.
There, too, let eddas spring in order meet,
With Indian cale, and foodful culaloo:
While mint, thyme, balm, and Europe's coyer herbs,
Shoot gladsome forth, nor reprobate the clime.
This tract secure, with hedges or of limes,
Or bushy citrons, or the shapely tree
That glows at once with aromatic blooms,
And golden fruit mature. To these be join'd
In comely neighborhood, the cotton bursts
On rocky soils. The coffee also plant;
White as the skin of Albion's lovely fair—
Are the thick, snowy, fragrant blooms it boasts:
Nor wilt thou, cocoa, thy rich pods refuse;
Though years, and heat, and moisture they require,
Ere the stone grind them to the food of health.
Of thee, perhaps, and of thy various sorts,
And that kind, sheltering tree, thy mother named.
With crimson flowerets prodigally graced,
In future times th' enraptured Muse may sing,
If public favor crown her present lay.
But let some ancient, faithful slave, erect
His shelter'd mansion near, and, with his dog,
His loaded gun and cutlass, guard the whole.
Else negro fugitives, who skulk mid rocks
And shrubby wilds, in bands will soon destroy
Thy laborer's honest wealth; their loss and yours.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—OUACHITA, LOUISIANA—MONROE.

This is a village located on the banks of the Ouachita River, at a place which was originally a prairie, called "Prairie des Canots," entirely above the overflow to the highest waters within the memory of the "oldest inhabitant;" 450 miles from New-Orleans; population 1,500; seat of Justice of the parish of Ouachita. There is held each year one session of the Supreme Court of the State, beginning on the first Monday of October. A session of the District Court of the United States is held here once annually, beginning on the first Monday of December. Here is held the United States Land Office, where the lands north of Red River are to be entered. These advantages give the place some note aside from any other considerations. Glance your eye around and observe the delta, formed by Red River on the West, the Arkansas line, 33 deg. on the North, the Mississippi River on the East, and the confluence of the Red and Mississippi Rivers on the South, you perceive that Monroe is the most central town within the above area or delta. It is located, too, on the banks of a stream not surpassed for beauty of current or scenery of shores by any stream in the south-west, navigable 200 miles above Monroe, and down which the produce of South Arkansas is shipped, and by which steamers pass weekly in the business season. This renders this town easy of access to those wl visit it, either for business or pleasure. Its central position w the Land office and judiciary within the boundary of the C lands on the Ouachita River, below Monroe, on the east sid alluvial formation. Growth—gum, cotton-wood, oak of different species, ash, box-alder, sycamore; undergrowth—dog-wood, pawpaw, grape and muscadine vines. The lands were covered with the Maison Rouge grant from a short distance below Monroe to the town of Columbia, on an average of three miles deep on both sides on the river. The Supreme Court of the United States last winter decided this grant to be invalid, and it is now a part of the public domain, with the exception of that which Gov. I. Johnson caused to be taken up for the State, as a portion of the 500,000 acres to which Louisiana was entitled under the act of distribution, and some private confirmations in the limits of this grant. Our Legislature have very justly made provision for these persons, who are settled on the lands located for the State, who had previously made *bona fide* purchases from the grantees; the residue will be in market as soon as the proper surveys and confirmations of location can be completed. The lands in the vicinity of Monroe are of good quality, though they do not run back so deep, the Lafourche overflow approaching the river at this point.

The lands on the Bayou de Siard, East of Monroe, are fine cotton lands; the front lands are generally occupied. But there are as good lands back, convenient to Monroe, yet in a state of nature, which could be bought at prices ranging from $5 to $10 per acre. There are some fine uplands still East of the Bayou de Siard, between it and Bœuf River, very desirable. The growth of these lands is pine and oak, principally; some scattering gum, hickory and walnut, in places. They produce remarkably well, and to a North Alabamian, Georgian, Tennesseean, East Mississippian, or even the Florida parishes of this State, they would be considered *good* cotton lands.

The Bayou de Siard is a legitimate Bayou. At low-water it has two mouths, emptying into the Ouachita River and Bayou Bartholomew. When the Bartholomew rises sufficiently, the waters from her pour through the Siard; and at such times the Siard, if cleared out, would be navigable all round to the Ouachita for steamers capable of carrying 200 bales of cotton. This Siard, with the Bartholomew and Ouachita River, forms an island, upon which are situated some of the finest cotton plantations in Louisiana; and there is yet a great portion of the island untilled. Nowhere on it would the planter have to haul his crop more than twelve miles to a shipping point.—*N. O. Crescent.*

2.—SIDNEY SMITH ON MODERN PROGRESS.

It is of some importance at what period a man is born. A young man, alive at this period, hardly knows to what improvements of human life he has been introduced, and I bring before his notice the following eighteen changes, which have taken place in England since I began to breathe the breath of life—a period amounting to nearly seventy years. Gas was unknown; I groped my way about the streets of London, in all but the utter darkness of a twinkling oil lamp, under the protection of watchmen, in their climacteric, and exposed to every species of insult. I have been nine hours in sailing from Dover to Calais, before the invention of steam. It took me nine hours to go from Taunton to Bath, and now I can go in six hours from Taunton to London! In going from Taunton to Bath, I suffered between 10,000 and 12,000 severe contusions before stone-breaking Macadam was born. I paid £15 in a single year for repairs of carriage spring, on the pavement of London; and now I glide without noise or fracture on wooden pavements. I can walk, by the assistance of the police, from one end of London to the other, without molestation; or if tired, get into a cheap cab, instead of those cottages on wheels, which the hackney coaches were at the beginning of my life. I had no umbrella. They were little used and very dear. There were no water-proof hats, and my hat has often been reduced by rains, to its primitive pulp. I could not keep my small clothes in their proper place, for braces were unknown. If I had the gout, there was no colchicum. If I was bilious, there was no calomel. If I was attacked by ague, there was no quinine. There were filthy coffee-houses instead of elegant clubs. Game could not be bought. Quarrels about uncommuted tithes were endless. The corruption of Parliament before reform, infamous. There were no banks to receive the savings of the poor. The poor laws were gradually sapping the vitals of the country. Whatever miseries I suffered I had no post, to whisk my complaints, for a single penny, to the remotest corners of the empire.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

ILLUSTRATED WITH PORTRAITS.

No. I.—Charles T. James, of Rhode Island.

It is our intention, in this series of papers and engravings, to present biographical sketches and portraits of such men as have made themselves prominent in the southern and western states, or in pursuits immediately connected with those states, for business activity, and wide and general enterprise tending to their common advancement and progress.

The Gallery will embrace merchants, agriculturists, manufacturers, mechanics, etc., as we may select them from time to time, or as they may be selected for us, should nothing interfere with the full execution of our plans. They will be taken from each of the states; and only such included as shall be, in the estimation of all, distinguished in the highest degree in their vocations.

It may well be inquired, if such a Gallery has not claims equally high, if not higher, than those of politicians, which have of late grown quite popular, and which are furnished monthly in the pages of the Whig and Democratic Reviews. The victories of the man of business, or the man of mechanism, over matter and circumstances, are as good as those of the legislative forum, and equally important to mankind.

In recording and perpetuating those victories, and in bringing their authors from comparative obscurity into broad day, shall we not be contributing our mite to the advancement of this great age of progress, at the same time that we are stimulating individual efforts, by inducing a high and laudable emulation, and offering the greatest reward to successful enterprise?

The name that we begin with is that of a man who, from the humble place of a mechanic, has raised himself to a high elevation, and won a reputation in an especial degree throughout all the southern states. Though not born within our limits, he has done so much in advancing and promoting our *manufacturing* industry, that we all know him, and entertain for him the highest esteem and regard. That man we shall soon introduce to the reader.

There was a time, and it has not long since passed away, when mechanic arts were considered unworthy of the study or consideration of learned circles, but only suited to the ignorant and servile. As, however, civilization advanced, new wants and desires were created, which, being supplied, created others—dependent all of them on the ingenuity and industry of the mechanic, and the application of mechanical science. These gave an increased importance to the mechanic, and introduced a salutary change, which, though not yet perfected, has produced astonishing results upon society. However great the benefits conferred by this class of men in all times, their merits—except in a few cases extremely rare—have either been overlooked, or soon forgotten; whilst all panegyric has been reserved for the dreaming and speculative philosopher, whose mystic cant served rather to darken and corrupt the human mind,—the crafty politician, and his imperious master, active in their efforts to rivet the fetters of a cruel despotism,—and the warrior chief, terrible in battle, in dealing death and destruction around, and deluging fields with human blood. Thus, men who tasked all their energies to corrupt or destroy mankind, have found places for their names on the records of fame, while the name of the mechanic who has labored with untiring energy to benefit his species, has been suffered to go down into oblivion, "unhonored and unsung." Too much of this spirit still remains, though the mechanic is gradually making his importance to be known, felt, and acknowledged; and paving a way upward for himself to the highest places of society.

Within the last hundred years, more than ever before, the world has been constrained to acknowledge, and history to record, the names and meri [illegible] o have reared noble monuments to themselves on the basis of the mechanic arts. Yet few of these, very few indeed, have been found in the ranks of the learned. By far the greater portion of those whose names stand out most prominent in the list, have been self-taught and self-made, and have raised themselves to eminence by the force of mechanical genius, and the merits of practical mechanical science. Among these we may notice particularly Hargreaves, the inventor of the spinning-jenny, and Arkwright, who converted it into the spinning-frame,—Whitney, the inventor of the cotton-gin,—Smeaton, the great civil engineer, whose works, and particularly his Eddystone Lighthouse, astonish the world,—Ferguson, the celebrated mechanic and mathematician,—Fulton, whose fame is identified with the success of steam navigation throughout the world,—Bramah, the inventor of the hydraulic press,—Godfrey, the inventor of what is falsely called Hadley's Quadrant,—Whittemore, who invented the machinery for making cards,—Watt and Evans, whose names will go down to posterity in connection with that wonder-working machine, the steam-engine,—and a host of others. On the whole, it is quite remarkable that professional science should have done so little for the mechanic arts. It follows in the footsteps of the practical school, and avails itself of the discoveries of practical men, but seldom leads the way. Most of the valuable and useful discoveries have been made by men who, making no pretensions to speculative science, have triumphed by the force of their native genius and practical energies. Among this class we place the man whose name heads this article.

Charles Tillinghast James is now about forty-five years of age. He was born in the town of West Greenwich, in the state of Rhode Island. His father was a respectable farmer. Rather inclined to mechanics than to literary studies, he approached the years of manhood with but the rudiments of an English education; and is, emphatically, a self-educated and self-made man. Many persons consider him merely as a sound theoretical man, or at best, a practical manufacturer. This is a mistake. At the age of nineteen, he turned his attention to mechanics, with the determination to qualify himself for the prosecution of his undertaking by the study of books. But soon becoming satisfied that he could obtain but little practical aid from them, he laid them aside, and determined to prepare himself by practice. He accordingly commenced as a practical working mechanic; and, step by step, proceeded through all the departments of the machine shop connected with the manufacture of cotton. By this method, Mr. James qualified himself not only to operate, but to build, with his own hands, any and every machine used in the cotton mill. Thus, and by the aid of the mathematical and mechanical sciences, for which he has an unusual aptness, and to which he has paid unremitting attention, he has been able to place himself at the head of his profession. Such was the position to which he had attained as early as the year 1836, or thereabouts, that he was presented with the honorary diploma of Master of Arts, from the Faculty of Brown University, in his native state.

Mr. James' style of work is peculiar to himself. With him it is original, and grows out of his practical knowledge of the business. He acknowledges no leader, and copies no model; and his mills are different in their general arrangement, and in many of their details, from any others in the United States. A scientific adaptation of every machine to every other machine, causing the whole to work in unison, without excess or deficiency in any one, produces complete harmony, and a perfect effect. This is the true secret why his mills do more and better work than others, at smaller cost. That they do better work is evident from the fact, that cloths made in them bear the highest value in the market, and have, in every case in which they have been exhibited at public fairs, in New-York, Philadelphia, and Boston, the latter city being the very focus of New England manufactures, borne off the palm; and a large number of medals has been awarded them, against all competition. That these cloths are made at smaller cost, published extracts from the books of the mills determine.

Mr. James, when his present contracts shall have been completed, will have put in operation a number of spindles considerably exceeding 300,000, being more than one-eighth of the entire number in the United States. In such extensive practical operations, with a mind ever on the alert to reme-

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